

THE CHAUTAUQUAN,

A Monthly Magazine for Self-Education.

VOL. XXXII.

MARCH, 1901.

No. 6.

Highway & Byway



Tis difficult to realize that the "Victorian era" is closed. The death of Queen Victoria came suddenly—to the outside world at least, and there is reason to believe that it had been hastened by the troubles and humiliations sustained by England in the last eighteen months. The queen outlived most of those great thinkers and workers who made her reign glorious and memorable. She outlived most of those who will be associated in history with the distinctive achievements of the nineteenth century. The Victorian reign was a brilliant one in every respect. During the decades 1830–1870, indeed, the British empire reached the acme of her greatness, prosperity, and might. Prior to 1832 England was monarchical and aristocratic in the worst sense of these terms. Parliament was an oligarchy, representing class, hereditary privilege, and wealth. The first electoral reform bill excepted, Victoria urged and approved every measure which has marked the transformation of England into a "crowned republic."

Today the monarchy is but a symbol, a form, a link with the past. The people rule in the United Kingdom, and the ministry has become the executive committee of parliament, or rather of the House of Commons, for the upper house has been stripped of its powers and reduced to the status of an advisory body which may delay and temporarily check, but which cannot defeat, legislation deliberately enacted by the popular branch, the only truly governing branch. The king reigns, and, in international affairs, has considerable influence and guiding authority, but he cannot override the will of the majority, expressed by the party in control of the commons.

The last attempt to govern with a minority ministry was made under William IV., and it failed so signally that the Tory prime minister, Peel, formulated in the most unequivocal terms the principle of parlia-

mentary supremacy which has prevailed ever since. That declaration is important in any discussion of the probable policy of the new ruler, King Edward VII. It is as follows: "According to the practise, the principle, and the letter of the constitution, a government should not persist in directing the national affairs after a loyal attempt, contrary to the decided opinion of the House of Commons, even when it possesses the confidence of the king and a majority in the House of Lords. The king has the constitutional right to dissolve parliament and order new elections, but the party returned by the majority of the voters determines the policy of the government." Edward VII. has not exercised his prerogative and has retained the Salisbury ministry in office.

No political changes will follow the accession of Edward VII. to the English throne. The democratic and "social" tendencies now dominant will not be antagonized, and in this vital sense the Victorian era can hardly be considered as ended. Yet many feel that England is entering upon a period—if not of "storm and stress," then of difficulty, uncertainty, and struggle. Her foreign trade has been declining; the South African war has strained her military and financial resources; in China her prestige has suffered considerably, and her relations with France and Russia have caused no little anxiety to her statesmen. The burden of empire is becoming heavier every day, and the people are beginning to count the cost of territorial expansion and "glory." In Canada and South Africa pessimistic utterances have been heard, for in the nature of things the intense devotion to Victoria which constituted the strongest tie of empire cannot in a moment be transferred to the new and untried sovereign. But difficulty overcome is the measure of capacity and of success, and within the bounds of justice and international amity there is plenty of room for further progress on the part of the

United Kingdom. Consolidation, unification, and amelioration should henceforth be the watchwords of British statesmanship. Fortunately the differences between the two great parties are not very radical, and, which ever directs the nation, continuity of policy is certain, while internal conflicts between king and parliament or king and people are matters of the past.



EDWARD VII.,
King of Great Britain and
Ireland, and Emperor
of India.

known, and Green says that with his reign modern England begins. During his energetic administration much important legislation concerning authority of courts and the tenure of land was established, and the first complete parliament was held. He added Wales to his inherited dominions, and brought from Scotland to London the Stone of Scone, now enclosed in the coronation chair which will probably be used by the seventh Edward. His first wife, Eleanor of Castile, according to Spanish chronicles, saved her husband's life at the risk of her own when he was wounded in the Holy Land with a poisoned dagger. Queen Eleanor died in Lincolnshire in 1290, and by the king's request crosses were erected on the places where her body was set down in the transit to London. The last one was at the present geographical center of the great city, Charing Cross, which name still reminds one of the Chère Reine.

Edward II., the first Prince of Wales, was "a shiftless, thriftless craven," and proved himself so unworthy a successor to his great father that he exhausted the patience of his people, and was deposed by his own parliament after an inglorious reign of twenty years. It was in his time that the battle of Bannockburn was fought, in which the Scotch under Robert Bruce regained independence.

Edward III. (1327-1377), who at nineteen

was considered capable to assume charge of the policy of the nation, showed in his youth the qualities that attract popularity. Handsome, energetic, fluent in speech, courteous in manner, he nevertheless proved to be a royal knight-errant rather than a statesman and warrior. His long reign saw the beginning of the disastrous Hundred Years' war with France, to an opening campaign in which belongs the story how good Queen Philippa persuaded him from vengeance to mercy; it heard the revolutionary preaching of Wyclif and the first glad notes of Chaucer's song, but the man who had been king fifty years died unhonored, unmourned.

Edward IV. (1461-1483), first king of the White Rose or Yorkist line, is a romantic figure in serious history. His personal beauty, bravery in battle, and affability to all classes were counterbalanced by a strong-willed selfishness that knew not how to make concessions. In times of peril alert and valorous, in times of peace he was slothful and self-indulgent. At one time he was the grateful friend, at another time the bitter enemy of the great Earl of Warwick, the king-maker of the day. To the consternation of his council he made a secret marriage with the widow of a Lancastrian knight. His long, fierce conflict with the warrior-hearted "queen of tears," Margaret of Anjou, furnishes material enough for many a historical novel as stirring as Bulwer's "Last of the Barons." A mightier than he made peaceful invasion of England during his reign in the printing-press set up by Caxton in the precincts of Westminster Abbey.

Edward V. abides immortally young in the world's pity, the pathetic figure of a little lad, heir to a crown which he never wore, done to death by an unscrupulous uncle. He was twelve years old when his father died in the April of 1483. He with his brother, Duke of York, disappeared from men's knowledge in June. Masons repairing the Tower in 1674 came upon the bones of two young boys hidden under a staircase, the grave of "The Little Princes in the Tower."



ALEXANDRA,
Queen of Great Britain and
Ireland, and Empress
of India.

Edward VI. (1547-1553), the Tudor boy-king, was a bright and promising but delicate lad of ten years at the death of his father, Henry VIII. His death at sixteen forbids knowledge of what might have been accomplished by him in manhood if the strength of will he seems to have inherited had been regulated by enlightened judgment and sincere piety. The Book of Common Prayer dates from his reign, and the establishment of many grammar schools in accordance with his wishes is a lasting memorial to his name.

The fields for a king's activity were formerly war and statecraft. Today there are nobler ways and means by which an Edward VII. may serve a people's welfare.



In connection with the funeral of the queen, a few incidents significant in one way or another should not pass without comment. In Dublin both the cathedrals were crowded on the occasion of the special services commemorative of her majesty's death. An observer in St. Patrick's noted that "when the change in the state prayers brought home to the people that something had really gone forever from their familiar daily life, there were many unaffected tears, and the infectious emotion of the multitude seized on strong young men who were not ashamed. In the streets there is the same silent witness to the universal grief. The very poor are in black of some sort, as well as the rich and those of the middle class." Of course this does not signify that the Irish have plucked the shamrock from their hats, but it does show what a hold the gracious personality of the aged sovereign had taken upon a section of her subjects not usually effusive in its expression of respect for English authority. In Washington, New York, Chicago, and other American cities, the day of the funeral was not allowed to pass without marked observance. At the national capital the



PRINCE EDWARD OF YORK,
Heir expectant to the
British throne.

flags were flown at half-mast on all government buildings, and President McKinley attended the commemorative serv-

ices in old St. John's Protestant Episcopal Church. In New York City the closing of the Stock and Produce exchanges gave an appearance of Sabbath quiet to the financial district, and many retail shops were closed. American flags, with here and there a British standard, were generally displayed at half-mast, those on the city hall presenting an unpleasant exception. It cannot be rash to say that no such tribute ever has been paid to a foreigner, least of all a crowned head, since the establishment of our government; and it is scarcely possible that persons now living will see a similar demonstration.

There were inevitably discordant notes. That uproarious assembly, the Austrian *reichsrath*, outdid itself in heaping insult upon the dead queen, when the presiding officer would have done honor to her memory in his speech at the opening of the session. In Ireland, agitators were not wanting who stood aloof from the common sorrow. Perhaps our own nearest neighbor, Canada, where professions of loyalty are as insistent as anywhere, afforded the most unpleasant exhibition. Lord Minto, the viceroy, sought to observe the occasion fittingly by having services conducted under official auspices in the Protestant cathedral at Ottawa. To his surprise and dismay the premier refused to give official countenance to the service in any way, either by attendance upon it or by defraying the slight expense connected with decorating the edifice. It is said in excuse of this ungracious act that since Canada has no state church it would be illegal and improper for the government to seem to give sanction to any religious body by participation in such a service. It need not require superhuman insight, however, to perceive that behind this pretext was a real dread of arousing the clamors of the French Roman Catholics, an element much feared and courted.



GEORGE FREDERICK,
Heir apparent to the
British throne.



While the queen's life was ebbing at Osborne House, watchers on the other side of the channel were standing by the deathbed

of an aged Frenchman whose name appears more than once in the history of his country. The Duc de Broglie was a grandson of Madame de Staël, and was a man of letters, as well as a diplomat and a statesman, his talents eventually winning for him a seat in the



M. T. STEYN,
President of the Orange
Free State.

of the Bourbon dynasty in the person of the Comte de Chambord. With the failure of Mac-Mahon's government, the duke retired from public view, only to emerge briefly to enter his emphatic protest when the republic began its persecution of the religious communities. It is curious to notice how the movement of political ideas in France left this honest and steadfast man alone. In the beginning he accounted himself a Liberal, standing for ideas which the English constitutional monarchy had introduced to the attention of Europe. But he remained standing where he had been at the beginning, and saw the tide of democracy and radicalism sweep past him in its rush toward socialism.

Having "shelved" the troublesome "affaire Dreyfus" by passing the general amnesty act, the French ministry, in accordance with previous announcements, presented to the Chamber of Deputies the so-called "associations" bill—the act directed specially against the religious orders, "congregations," and monastic associations. The opponents of Premier Waldeck-Rousseau and his cabinet have steadily denounced it as a revolutionary measure calculated to destroy religious freedom and to confiscate the property of the orders. There is a considerable element of truth in this, and many of the moderate

Republicans, the followers of ex-Premiers Meline and Ribot, are opposing the government in conjunction with the Nationalists, Clericals, Royalists, etc. In favor of the bill are the radicals, some of the moderates, and the socialists. Indeed, it is asserted even by friendly commentators that the cabinet is, in pressing this bill, paying the price of socialist and "leftist" support, without which it would long since have been driven from power. On the other hand, the spokesmen of the government insist that the bill is necessary to the safety of the republic, as the orders are bitterly hostile to it and in league with the nationalist and reactionary element of the army.

The principle and gist of the bill can be briefly explained. The relations between state and church in France are still regulated by the concordat concluded by Napoleon with Rome. The regular clergy are paid by the state, the republic having been loyally accepted by them. But the concordat did not mention the irregular clergy—those composing the "congregations." These have no legal status in France. They have been allowed to exist, grow, acquire immense wealth and influence, establish schools and colleges all over the land, and carry on an active propaganda. It is undoubtedly true, however, that they are irreconcilably opposed to the present government and have conspired to overthrow it. Hence the legislation against them, which, in form at least, is only restrictive and regulative.

The bill provides that all associations organized between Frenchmen and foreigners, or directed and governed from a place outside of France or established on the principle of communal life and ownership of property, shall be deemed dissolved if within six months special sanction and authority is not obtained by them from the council of state. The property of such dissolved associations is to be returned to the donors, reclaimed by those who, as heirs, may be entitled to so much of it as may have been bequeathed or transferred as a gift. Property not so reclaimed is to be appropriated for aged workingmen in public institutions.

It is not supposed that any of the congregations will avail themselves of the privilege of organization under special sanction, which, of course, would mean constant supervision and restriction. The orders will prefer to suffer dissolution and the loss of their property. But, even if the act should pass both chambers of parliament, is there any real probability of a resolute attempt to

enforce it? The government may be satisfied with placing the bill on the statute books, and by its means keeping the orders within bounds. Certain it is that the Vatican will not allow the orders to be despoiled and crushed without a protest. Already the pope has threatened to retaliate by depriving France of the rôle of protector of the Catholic missions and interests in the Orient, and by asking her rival, Germany, to assume it.

The rejection of the bill would cause the fall of the Waldeck-Rousseau cabinet, which might prove a serious misfortune for France. Its passage may involve no actual injury to the "congregations." But the struggle is very bitter, and party feeling runs high. The extreme wings demand complete disestablishment—separation between church and state. But the ministry does not sympathize with any such grave consequences.

The trans-Saharan railway is a long time getting beyond the stage of discussion, but recent advances of French power in Africa and the menace of the English "Cape-to-Cairo" line, now one-third completed, have brought the interest in the project to the front in Paris. When M. Leroy-Beaulieu told the Paris Geographical Society that the road is a political, military, and commercial necessity, his audience burst into enthusiastic applause. There seems to be much difference of opinion as to routes. The favorite plan calls for the construction of a line across the desert from Algiers through the oasis of Tuat, of which France has recently taken possession, to the mud metropolis

Timbuctoo. Much has been written in advocacy of a location which should reach Lake Tchad from Algiers via the Air oasis, but M. Foureau's published impressions of the commercial value of this oasis in his recent crossing of the Sahara have been used to discredit this route. Capt. Bonnejon, traveler and engineer, has brought out a book in support of a carefully worked out trans-Saharan railway system, to be built by the government for the protection of the French Congo. He would carry the trunk-line from Biskera, in southeastern Algeria, about fourteen hundred miles to Air, whence he would build three branches; the first to Zinder, contiguous to Lake Tchad, the second to Mao, and the third to the Upper Niger, within reach of Timbuctoo. Such a road exposed to the shifting sands of the windy desert, and to the hostility of the Tauregs, would be costly to construct, and difficult to maintain and guard; yet this officer speaks with some authority when he declares that it is indispensable to the protection of the French possessions in Central Africa that the republic should be able to throw troops into the exposed territory at three days' notice.

After what has been done in America and Siberia in the way of transcontinental railroading, it would be strange indeed if in these days of international rivalry the French republic should shrink from the physical difficulties of laying three thousand miles of rails in Africa.



LORD KITCHENER,
British Commander-in-chief
in South Africa.



"HAND IN GLOVE."

—Minneapolis Journal.

For the following discussion of the enormous claims made against China, Mr. Guy M. Walker, who has given much of the best information to current periodicals, is authority. If the claims were limited to the actual loss of property and trade and to the claims growing out of the murder and death of foreigners, the amount would be so small that its payment would cause no embarrassment whatever to the Chinese government. If to this is added a sum sufficient to cover the claims of the native Christians and the cost of the relief expeditions, the sum will

still be insignificant compared with the enormous total now claimed. It is only by including punitive damages, or damages assessed purely for the purpose of punishment, and not to cover any actual loss, that the claims of the powers can be swelled to the enormous total of \$600,000,000. There have been about one hundred foreign missionaries murdered by the Boxers. To these, may be added about one hundred more who were killed in the defense of the legations at Peking, or so injured that their death may be attributed to wounds or hardships there endured. The whole number of claims against China on account of the death

of foreigners is thus seen to amount to less than two hundred. It has been fairly established by a long line of precedents that twenty-five thousand dollars is a reasonable indemnity for each life. Thus the aggregate claims against China on this account will not amount to over \$5,000,000. The mission property destroyed did not cost over \$2,000,000, but it is likely that the claims on this account will be swelled to \$3,000,000 to cover the increased cost of building since the uprising. Five million dollars more will certainly cover all reasonable claims for foreign property destroyed at Peking and Tien-Tsin, while \$2,000,000 would be a reasonable amount to merchants for the loss of prospective profits. If the principle of indemnifying the native Christians is accepted, which seems likely, for the Chinese authorities had already begun to do so even before diplomatic representations had been made in their behalf, the indemnity on this account should not amount to over \$10,000,000, which sum would give to ten thousand Chinese families (a liberal estimate of those that suffered) an average indemnity of one thousand dollars apiece, which, too, is liberal when it is considered that that sum would have a money value equal to \$12,500 here.

If the expenses of the other powers in the relief expedition to Peking are to be judged by those of Russia, which has stated that its total expenditures on account of its detachment therein were less than \$10,000,000,

it would seem that \$60,000,000 or \$70,000,000 would be an ample allowance on this account. The Russian detachment in the relief expedition was second only to Japan's in size, but was more expensive on account of the greater distance it was brought. Japan's expenses could not, therefore, fairly exceed another sum of \$10,000,000. Great Britain, whose detachment was third in size, has not yet indicated what its actual expenditures on this account have been, but as her detachment was largely composed of Indian troops, it should not be much larger in proportion to size than those of Russia and Japan. Our own government in December stated that the expenses of our operations in China up to that time had amounted to about \$5,000,000. The detachments of the other powers in the relief expedition were insignificant compared to those that have been mentioned specifically. It will thus be seen that \$100,000,000 would cover all fair claims against China on account of damage to foreigners, native Christians, and the relief expeditions.

The indemnities to be exacted from China should, however, not be limited to such a sum as will cover all actual loss or expenditures chargeable to her, nor to such sum as she can raise in cash, for the chief purpose of levying indemnity upon her in the present exigency is to place China under bonds to



GENERAL PORFIRIO DIAZ,
President of Mexico.



"CHILDLIKE AND BLAND."

Chinese official: "Well, the empress is away at present; but your accounts shall be forwarded, gentlemen, and no doubt her imperial majesty will attend to them at her — Ahem! — Earliest convenience!"

—London Punch.

guarantee her future good behavior. This can only be done by imposing upon her in the form of punitive damages, such a debt as will exhaust her surplus revenues for some time to come, and so prevent the enormous purchase and manufacture of war materials and supplies that has been going on since the late Japanese war. This has undoubtedly been Germany's purpose in pouring in the large force that has ravaged the province of Pechili since the relief of Peking, and for this purpose, too, has she allowed to her officers and soldiers such enormous salaries.

Although taking little part in the relief of Peking, Germany has, on these punitive expeditions, based a claim of over \$80,000,000. With Germany making a claim of such enormous proportions, it is of course necessary for the other powers, in order to secure their fair proportion of the ultimate award, to increase their claims by including the same element of punitive damages. So it is that China today faces an enormous bill of costs aggregating \$600,000,000, an indemnity exceeded only by that enormous claim made by Germany at the end of the Franco-Prussian war for the purpose, as stated by Prince Bismarck, of "bleeding France pale."



The impression seems to prevail that China is unable to pay such an enormous claim, and that any attempt to collect it will force her into hopeless bankruptcy. The revenues of the Chinese government aggregate only a little over 90,000,000 taels (\$67,000,000) per annum. This revenue is derived from the customs duties which return 22,500,000 taels per annum; the *likin* or transit duties which return about 13,000,000 taels per annum; the salt duties which return 14,000,000 taels, and the land tax and miscellaneous revenues which return a little over 40,000,000 taels per annum. The present national debt of China is about \$250,000,000, practically all of it being incurred for the payment of the Japanese indemnity. For the security of the first \$175,000,000 of this debt, China has assigned the customs revenues of the empire which are now administered by a foreign force under the direction of Sir Robert Hart. These revenues are derived from a five per cent tax levied on all foreign trade, both export and import. This tax could easily be raised to fifteen per cent without seriously affecting Chinese trade. This increase alone would care for an additional debt of \$400,000,000. For the other \$75,000,000 of China's existing debt, the *likin* or transit duties have been assigned,

but as these duties are today the greatest hindrance to the growth of foreign trade in China, they should be abolished, and other security found for this debt.

The greatest source of imperial revenue is, however, the land tax, which yields about 33,000,000 taels a year, or more than one-third the total revenues of the government. This tax is levied directly on all the arable land in the empire in sums varying according to the quality of the land, from twenty-five cents to one dollar per acre. The collection of this tax is still in the hands of native officials, and it is known from the area and rates assessed that the sum collected originally from the people aggregates more than five times the amount returned to the imperial government. The difference between the 160,000,000 taels taken from the people and the 33,000,000 taels turned in to the imperial treasury represents the "squeeze" of the various officials through whose hands the money passes before reaching the capitol. This loss in collection of more than eighty per cent is a cost of administration unheard of in any civilized country. The customs revenues, when administered by native officials, returned the central government only about one-eighth the sum now collected under the direction of Sir Robert Hart, and the administration of China's land tax in the same manner by a foreign commissioner will undoubtedly effect a saving to the imperial government of 100,000,000 taels per annum, after paying to it a sum equal to that which it now receives from that source. This sum of 100,000,000 taels per annum would pay five per cent interest per annum on a debt of 1,000,000,000 taels (\$725,000,000) and leave a sum sufficiently large to repay the entire principal of the debt in less than twenty years. Such results can be accomplished without increasing the burden upon the people a single cent, by merely administering honestly the taxes already levied. If these sources were not sufficient to pay almost any indemnity that may be levied against China, she has additional resources



PROF. ELISHA GRAY,
The late American inventor.

which must certainly prove ample. In that country there are as yet no taxes laid upon the manufacture either of tobacco or malt and spirituous liquors, and this source of revenue alone could likely be developed sufficiently to pay the enormous indemnity which is now claimed.

Those observers of times and customs who have a gift for detecting apparent analogies have had abundant opportunity during the past season for drawing—and in most emphatic lines—"the deadly parallel" between certain phases in Roman and in American history. A feverish desire for the acquisition of wealth, not so much for a possession as for the means of lavish and unique expenditure, was a distinctive mark of the closing days of the Roman republic and the chief characteristic of the first, seemingly brilliant, days of the world empire into which that republic merged. The decoration of rooms in which banquets were served in that elder day, and the banquets themselves with their astonishing collections of supposed dainties, gathered from all parts of the earth at incredible cost, might well test the vocabulary equipment of a modern reporter of social functions. Pliny found in the artificial growth of asparagus and the use of ice evidence of unbounded extravagance, but his criticisms received the respect usually paid to the querulous complainings of an old fogey. Nightingales, pheasants, peacocks, and flamingoes furnished dainty morsels for Roman epicures. And Cicero had a friend in the theatrical profession who paid four thousand dollars one time for a dish of singing birds. Caligula once invested the income of three provinces, something like four hundred thousand dollars, in a single banquet, and indulged in several twenty thousand dollar repasts.

The reader who has followed during the winter, even as far off as through the newspapers, the glittering social round in our cities, might have been reminded of these figures, but would doubtless have found some comfort in the reflection that the expense indicated by any high dollar-mark went chiefly into more esthetic ministry than that designed for the palate. The chef of a currently famous hostelry in our eastern metropolis is reported as saying that, really, the best he can do merely with food, no matter how large a fortune is at his command, is twenty dollars a plate. To be sure, he has been able to assemble a dinner of eighteen covers which cost rather more than

seven hundred and twenty-two dollars a plate, but most of this sum went for decorations. He is quoted as saying that, with months for preparation, he might possibly get up a dinner that should cost fifty thousand dollars, adding, we may fancy in a plaintive tone, "You could have diamonds in the meat."

Winter costumes have been much spangled with gold, according to report, or created out of fabrics interwoven with golden threads. Jewels have flashed with sunburst effect in the society columns from New York to San Francisco. Palace homes, hotels, and public buildings have been transformed into leafy groves and flower gardens in which lilies-of-the-valley and Persian orchids, white hyacinths, and roses of all the summer hues, tropic palms, and maiden-hair ferns, have been brought together in dewy freshness and in untold numbers in the very heart of wintry weather. We read of walls covered with tracery of vines abloom with pink roses, and of rooms in which a frieze of greenery serves as background for sprays of peach-blossom, while out of doors arctic cold prevailed.

One may reserve the right to hope that the loss of ideals and the degeneracy of spirit which were attendant characteristics of the rivalry in expenditure that raged in Rome before it fell from its high place among the nations are not inevitable, inseparable accompaniments of the lavish use of money for social purposes in the American republic in its preliminary period of world empire



GETTING READY FOR THE SENATE.

Mr. Roosevelt's experience in Colorado will give him good training for presiding over a rough house.
—*Minneapolis Journal.*

building, but if radical leaders read society papers they will find texts there.

It is one of the hopeful signs of the times that so widespread and serious an interest is being created in behalf of the preservation of historic as well as scenic places. The movement—for such it is rapidly becoming—owes much to the various patriotic organizations which have sprung up so plentifully during the last ten or fifteen years. The foreigner may sneer at America, and say that we have no ruins and are therefore far behind various other countries from the standpoint of the tourist; but he cannot say that we have not scores of historic places. The wisdom and necessity of preserving such places are at once apparent. In New York there is a society with this as its sole object, and under the presidency of Mr. Andrew H. Green its influence is so rapidly extending that congress has been petitioned to create a national society.

Such organizations as the Daughters of the American Revolution are doing a great deal toward the preservation of historic places and objects. A committee from this society recently had a hearing before the Senate Committee on Military Affairs in support of a bill for the purchase of the site of Washington's camp at Valley Forge, the intention being to make a national reservation of it. About the same time a delegation from Virginia appeared before the House Committee on Military Affairs to urge upon congress the propriety of acquiring the historic site at Yorktown, Virginia, where the Revolutionary struggle closed with the surrender of Cornwallis. The site which it is proposed to acquire includes five hundred acres, and the old Moore mansion where Washington, Lafayette, and Rochambeau were quartered when the surrender was consummated. Several of the state legislatures have petitioned the government to purchase the site. Of a similar character is a bill now before the New York legislature. It contemplates the expenditure of fifty thousand dollars to acquire the place known as Hamilton Grange in New York City, which was once the residence of Alexander Hamilton. It is intended also to acquire the land on which Hamilton planted the famous thirteen trees to commemorate the thirteen original states, and to remove the Grange building to that site and to use it as a historical museum, especially devoted to the Revolutionary period of our history.

The work of the Massachusetts society

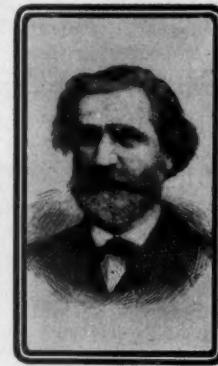
for the preservation of historic places has done much to stimulate interest all over the country. For years this society has been putting tablets upon buildings and at spots which mark places of historic interest. This has been done also in a measure in New York, as well as in some other large cities, but only a comparatively few places have been indicated. In Virginia a movement is on foot to preserve and in a measure restore the Bruton parish church at Williamsburg, which, because of its relation to the early settlement of Virginia, and to Washington, makes it a particularly valuable center of historic interest, fact, and suggestion. At

Greenwich, Connecticut, the Putnam Hill Chapter of the Daughters of the American Revolution is planning to purchase the Putnam cottage, from which the doughty General Putnam made his escape in 1779. The society recently affixed a tablet to a boulder on the brow of Putnam hill bearing this inscription:

"This marks the spot where on February 26, 1779, General Israel Putnam, cut off from his soldiers and pursued by British cavalry, galloped down this rocky steep and escaped, daring to lead where not one of many hundred foes dared to follow."

The cottage, which is one of those quaint old homesteads with large rooms displaying fine paneling and heavy beams overhead, contains many old pieces of furniture, and the Putnam Hill Chapter has long desired to possess it, as it is particularly well adapted for a museum and a repository for the numerous relics of the Revolutionary period which the chapter owns.

It may be stated in this connection that an effort is being made by the government to secure title to the cliff-dwellers' region of New Mexico for park and scientific purposes. This plan is meeting with great favor among ethnologists and archaeologists who appreciate the vast benefit that will accrue to the cause of science in having this section of New Mexico under the control of the national government. Another fact of this general character is that the commission



GIUSEPPE VERDI,
The late Italian musical
composer.

of New York and New Jersey which was created to secure the Palisades along the Hudson from further ravages at the hands of the stone contractors who have been blasting away the face of the cliffs for the last five or six years, has succeeded in securing the property desired, including the foot and the face of the cliffs, and it is now proposed to construct a driveway along the



HOME OF CHIEF JUSTICE MARSHALL, RICHMOND, VA.
Purchased for a memorial by the American
Bar Association.

entire river bank and to lay out a park on the top of the cliff wherever it can be done without too great expense. It seems certain that the Palisades of the Hudson, famous throughout the world, are to be preserved from the mercenary blaster.

The development of the traveling library is one of the most interesting illustrations of the impulse toward self-culture that has had various manifestations among the American people. Over sixty years ago libraries were established in district schools throughout New York State, and though the plan was introduced in different communities in other states, it did not flourish then. About eight years ago State Librarian Dewey of New York sent out small libraries to several communities in the state, on condition that the books be well cared for and returned at the expiration of six months. This plan is still in successful operation, and there are now 600 traveling libraries in circulation in the state of New York. As a natural consequence in some places the little state library has stimulated the people to such an extent that larger libraries have been established. In many states the idea has taken root, especially in Kansas, Iowa, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota,

and Maine. In Ohio 711 libraries were sent out last year, making an aggregate of 19,505 volumes, over half of the books going to women's clubs, public schools, and granges. One county in Ohio has levied a tax for the support of a free public library, the trustees of which intend to send traveling libraries to all the post-offices of the county, and render these libraries as accessible as possible to the largest number of readers. One village in Wisconsin, whose inhabitants are nearly all fisher folks, raised a fund of fifty dollars which was placed in the hands of the state library commission for the purchase of a library for their village. For a rural community in which the advantages of a library are entirely lacking, as well as in the scattered farmhouses to which a current publication penetrates only at rare intervals, the coming of the traveling library is hailed as a veritable boon and benediction.

How can public school children be interested in beautifying their home surroundings? To many communities which seek an answer to this question, some account of the success achieved in one of the largest cities in the United States may prove suggestive. The Home Gardening Association of Goodrich Social Settlement, in Cleveland, Ohio, encouraged by experience among their neighborhood people, sought to extend their work last year through the public schools. With the concurrence of the school authorities the association secured a special committee of three teachers to take official charge of this movement. A circular was sent out to the teachers and pupils, explaining that packages of seeds of easily grown flowering annuals—four-o'clocks, nasturtium, zinnias, morning-glory, bachelor's buttons, larkspur, marigolds, and calendula—would be supplied to pupils at a cost of one penny per package. Each pupil received a card on which choice of nine varieties was allowed; the teachers collected the cards, and the result was that nearly fifty thousand packages were asked for.

The teachers were requested to give talks upon the preparation of soil, effects of sunshine and shade upon plants, the proper time for watering them, and other helpful hints concerning the planting and culture of flowers. On each package given out, plain directions were printed for the children to follow. Between the last of February and the middle of May the children bought 48,868 of these packages, the sale of which, at a cent apiece, covered all expenses of

introducing the experiment, the cost of over two hundred pounds of seeds (bought in bulk), envelopes, packing and printing. The fact that the movement can be made self-supporting is a point to bear in mind if public school authorities are inclined to look with disfavor upon adding to the burdens of school management.

The interest taken by both pupils and teachers in the work during the spring months led to the suggestion that, at the beginning of the school year in the fall, reports of the success of seed planting should be made and a day set apart for a flower-show, in which the children might exhibit the plants or flowers they had raised during the summer vacation. A photograph of one of these exhibits is reproduced here-with. The reports showed that about seventy-five per cent of the home gardeners thus enlisted were successful. Aside from the pleasure in growing the flowers and the improvement of the home surroundings, these reports show that the children took the greatest pleasure in sending flowers to their friends, to sick people, and to various charitable institutions.

The success of the first year of this experiment warrants enlargement of the plans for the current year. The Home Gardening Association has placed about three thousand potted bulbs in the schoolrooms during the winter season, together with printed directions for taking care of them,

will be turned into a school garden this spring, and there is reason to believe that the interest aroused in the culture of flowers, through this movement, will result in the establishment of a botanical garden by the park authorities.



All doubt and speculation concerning the status of Cuba have been set at rest by the unanimous decision of the federal supreme court in the Neely case. Those Americans who had openly or insidiously propagated the idea of retaining Cuba under American sovereignty while giving her a merely nominal independence, find the difficulties in their way rendered almost insuperable by the unequivocal declarations of the court. The issue in the Neely case was narrow, but in order to decide it, it was necessary to inquire closely into the precise relations between Cuba and the United States, and to define the former's position as a political entity.

Neely was the Cuban postal agent under the authority of the president. He was accused of embezzling the funds intrusted to him, and fled to the United States. The government sought to deliver him up for trial to the Cuban military authorities, but he denied the power to extradite him. While the matter was pending in the federal courts, a special act was passed by congress to cover his case and similar exigencies. The act required the government of the United States to surrender any public officer or employee fleeing to this country after having committed a criminal act in a foreign country occupied and temporarily controlled by the United States. The constitutionality of that legislation was at once challenged on several grounds, including the allegation that, peace having been restored in Cuba, our military occupation was without warrant.

The court sustained the extradition act, and held it applicable to Cuba. Was Cuba to be deemed a foreign country? Yes, answered the court, in view of the avowed objects intended to be accomplished by the war with Spain and by the military occupation of the island. By the joint resolution of April 20, 1898, recalls the decision, the legislative and executive branches of the government disclaimed any purpose to exercise sovereignty, jurisdiction, or control over Cuba except for the pacification thereof, and asserted the determination of the United States, the object of the intervention being accomplished, to leave the government of the island to its own people. The peace treaty placed the United States in temporary juris-



GILBERT SCHOOL FLOWER-SHOW, CLEVELAND, OHIO.

and stereopticon lectures, showing what has been accomplished in the way of beautifying barren surroundings of homes in even the most congested quarters of cities, are being given from time to time. The president, Mr. E. W. Haines, says that land has been secured adjoining one of the schools, which

dition, but did not destroy the essential status of Cuba. The occupancy of the island was the necessary result of the war, and could not have been avoided consistently with the principles of international laws or our moral obligations. The opinion continues:

All that has been done in relation to Cuba has had that end in view, and, so far as the court is informed by the public history of the relations of this country with that island, nothing has been done inconsistent with the declared object of the war with Spain. Cuba is none the less foreign territory within the meaning of the act of congress because it is under a military governor appointed by and representing the president in the work of assisting the inhabitants of that island to establish a government of their own, under which as a free and independent people they may control their own affairs without interference by other nations.

The duty devolved, and still devolves, upon the United States to protect in all appropriate legal modes the lives, liberties, and property of the Cubans. This being so, what legislation, asks the court, could be more appropriate for such protection than that which provides for the surrender to the constituted authorities of the island of fugitives who had committed crime or abused the trust of the people of Cuba? The fact that there is no indictment by grand jury, nor trial by petit jury in Cuba is immaterial, for the constitution of the United States does not extend to the island, it being "foreign" in every sense of the term. Offenders must submit to such modes of trial and punishment as are in force there.

Some commentators have professed to discern in this decision an indication of the supreme court's position on the Porto Rican and Philippine question, but the cases are in no wise parallel. Cuba was not ceded to us, while Porto Rico and the Philippines were, and we certainly exercise in them sovereignty, control, and jurisdiction. They are not foreign, but territory of the United States. The question to be settled with respect to them is whether the bill of rights and the taxation-and-uniformity provision extend to them *ex proprio vigore*. No one pretends that our constitution applies to foreign countries, but are Porto Rico and the Philippines "foreign" in one sense and American in another?



The Philippine problem has forced itself on the attention of the people in various forms. Much was said about it in congress during the discussion of the army reorganization act, and wide comment was elicited by a petition presented by Senator Teller of Colorado from two thousand Filipinos living in Manila and immediate vicinity. Accord-

ing to Senators Teller and Hoar the signers are all responsible and leading Filipinos—merchants, lawyers, bankers, ex-officers, and other educated men. They state that the insurrection is a national movement; that no element of the population is even reconciled to American rule; that independence has long been the hope and ardent desire of the Filipinos, and that the United States can obtain peace only by promising them such independence. The document was exhaustive and written in respectful terms. Its authenticity and representative value have been questioned, but President Schurman, the head of the first civil commission in the Philippines, agrees with those who believe that the petition correctly portrays existing conditions. General MacArthur, too, has admitted in his report that the population is generally hostile to the United States, and that even those who have taken the oath of allegiance, and even places of honor and public trust under our authority, have secretly aided the insurrection.

At the same time the Taft commission continues to take a hopeful view of the situation. In its second report to Secretary Root the commission states that since the late American elections there has been "a great decrease in insurgent activity," and that "from now on conditions will grow steadily better." The commission further says that all the information it is able to obtain leads it to the belief that "a great majority of the people long for peace, and are entirely willing to accept the establishment of a government under the supremacy of the United States. They are, however," it adds, "restrained by fear from taking any



—Cleveland Plain Dealer.

action to assist the suppression of the insurrection."

The commission earnestly recommends the adoption by congress of the Spooner resolution, introduced many months ago, which confers upon the president full power to establish a civil government in the islands or in any part of them. Quasi-civil government satisfies nobody, it seems, and the time has come, in the commission's judgment, to extend to the Filipinos the benefits of complete civil government. It observes on this point:

Passage of Spooner bill at present session greatly needed to secure best result from improving conditions. Until its passage no purely central civil government can be established, no public franchise of any kind granted, and no substantial investment of private capital in internal improvements possible. All are needed as most important step in complete pacification. Strong peace party organized with defined purpose of securing civil government under United States, and reasonably expect civil government and relief from inevitable but annoying restraints of military rule long before subject can be taken up by new congress.

But there is not the least likelihood of such action by congress at the present session — first because time is lacking, and second because Senator Spooner himself, with many other Republicans, feels that the data in the possession of congress are insufficient and that more light is needed. He has declared himself in favor of a congressional committee, nonpartisan and representative, appointed for the purpose of visiting the Philippines and making a searching examination of political, military, and other conditions by means of public hearings and inquiries at various cities and towns of the archipelago. This proposal has been indorsed

in many quarters, but it has not escaped bitter attack.

Protestant leaders in this country are not inclined to look with favor upon wholesale accessions in the Philippines. General Morgan, who is secretary of the American Baptist Home Mission Society, says thousands have sought admission to Baptist organizations in eastern Cuba and Porto Rico, and that, if encouragement had been afforded, as general changes could have been recorded as are reported from Manila. Private advices are to the effect that in all of the countries named the number seeking to leave the Roman communion is larger than the telegraph reports indicate. But the religious bodies which they seek to join have instructed their missionaries to insist upon the fact that Christianity is a matter of the heart, not of the head, and for the most part that all old practices must be left behind. Concerning the rumors that the converts may bring their church buildings with them, and thus save new churches being erected, officers of mission boards here say that no property complications are anticipated, because so far as they can control none will be accepted until the courts have acted. Everybody recognizes that this question of title to church property is one of the most difficult any government was ever called upon to deal with, and that trouble in many forms is more than likely to arise. The suggestion of the Philippine Commission that the government buy the land from the friars, and resell it to the settlers, pleases nobody — the friars because they do not wish to retire, the Protestants because they question the validity of the land titles, and members of the senate and house because such course would leave Luzon churches without endowment, and the Filipinos still untrained to support religious work by voluntary contributions.



THE POLITICAL MRS. NATION.

—Minneapolis Tribune.

Ritualist leaders in England are claiming that the accession of King Edward VII. will help their cause. The late queen was a pronounced broad churchwoman, and especially anxious that things should continue as they are. The Oxford movement began almost with the accession of Victoria, but it ever attracted the favor of the official head of the church. King Edward is declared to be more liberal. He has seen the church roused from its lethargy by the advanced party. Hence he will be more tolerant of it. The King of England is no more sovereign of the spiritual than of the political

realm, and any change that his accession at this time may bring about will be wielded through social influence, if at all. The new King Edward and Queen Alexandra have long taken more than mere passing interest in church work. There are those who hold, and others who deny, that the ecclesiastical laws of England have force in the Episcopal Church in America. An effort is just now making to establish a periodical, to be the organ of the "Catholic" party in both countries. The aim of the party is to restore the practises and teaching of the church as they were before the Reformation. General regret is expressed over the prospect of the Anglo-American periodical, fearing that it will bring into the Episcopal Church here the dissensions in the church in England, and perhaps result in a brood of American Kensits.



Christian Endeavor, as a movement, was twenty years old last month, and to celebrate the anniversary a national and a state convention were held conjointly in Williston Church, Portland. The number of societies has grown from one to 60,750, and members from 57 to 3,500,000. The five years from 1880 to 1885 were remarkably prolific of young people's religious movements, such as rising in many religious bodies, and getting into workable shape by 1890. President Clark points out the change, perhaps a little severely, when he says that in 1881 the young people were neglected in church life. It is safe to reply that there has never been a time when churches greatly neglected their young people, at least not since the days of Robert Raikes. At any rate, it is true now, as President Clark points out, that the religious training of the young is among the foremost purposes of every church. Endeavorers from every country under the sun contributed to the cost of a tablet that has just been placed in Williston Church commemorating the anniversary.



The Catholic Young Men's National Union is an organization having a membership of about sixty thousand, coming chiefly from parishes in the large cities of the east. Its objects are, for the most part, those of the Young Men's Christian Association, although it has until now been parochial. Its recent annual meeting called attention to the fact that many Catholic young men are in regular Christian associations because there are no Catholic associations, with buildings, gymnasiums, clubs, and the like. The Brooklyn

Union now announces its purpose to erect such a union building, modeled in all respects upon the association idea, including the restaurant and the religious services. During the war with Spain Archbishop Corrigan of New York was asked what the difficulty was with the Catholic Church in Cuba and the Philippines. He replied that it was about four hundred years behind the times. Asked where his marker was, where it was up to the times, he instanced the United States, and when asked why, he gave among other reasons the influence of Protestantism. In many large cities today Catholic parishes have Sunday-schools conducted in all essentials as a Methodist or a Baptist pastor would plan and conduct such.



A fifth order has decided to erect a house of studies to be affiliated with the Roman Catholic University at Washington. It is the Fathers of St. Sulpice, a French order long ago transplanted here, and now strongest in the archdiocese of Baltimore. From the beginning of the university it has had charge of the instruction in its divinity school. Orders with houses already erected near the university are the Franciscans, Congregation of the Holy Cross, the Paulists, and the Marists, besides Trinity College for



ELECTRIC TOWER, PAN-AMERICAN EXPOSITION.

women, which is near, but not affiliated with the university. These houses are intended, for the most part, to provide homes for novices of the orders while taking lectures at the university.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE STUDY OF GREEK AND FRENCH IN AMERICAN COLLEGES.

BY CHARLES W. E. CHAPIN.

HE beginning of the educational system of our country was a transplanting of shoots from the classical vine of Old England. The Puritans had been here but a little time when they cast about for ways and means to establish a university. Their strenuous efforts resulted in the founding of Harvard College in 1636. As early as 1642, and for many years, the conditions of admission were as follows:

"Whoever shall be able to read Cicero or any other such like classical author at sight, and make and speak true Latin in verse and prose, *suo ut ait Marte*, and decline perfectly the paradigms of nouns and verbe in the Greek tongue: Let him then and not before be capable of admission into the college."

In the preparation of young men in the classics there seems to have been a prophecy of modern language methods. This work was usually in the hands of the parish minister, and Latin was taught as a spoken language. Frequent walks in the fields and woods were made the occasion for talking in Latin. Professor George Gary Bush says:

"The time was then specially favorable to this method of study, as few books were accessible, and such as they had, like the Bible, they knew almost by heart. This outdoor life and daily communion with nature also helped to develop good moral and physical constitutions, and so in spite of the poverty of books, by this training the foundation was laid for many a noble life and for high scholarly attainments."

After the proper steps for matriculation, the student pursued for three years a course which embraced the following studies: arithmetic, geometry, rhetoric, logic, ethics, physics, metaphysics, politics, Hebrew, Chaldean, Syriac, Latin, Greek, English, and divinity. The Old and New Testaments were the principal books for the study of the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin languages, but during its first century the course in Greek and Latin was considerably enlarged, and in 1726 an official report of the tutors mentions as Latin authors read, Cicero, Virgil, Tully; in Greek, the New Testament, the Greek catechism, and the grammar continued to be studied.

The strong theological trend of life in Puritan New England is noticeable in everything. Yale College, founded sixty-four

years after Harvard, maintained for its first century a course of study similar in its narrowness and theological character to that in the older institution. The laws of Yale College for 1720 and 1726 thus outline the curriculum:

"In the first year after admission, on the four first days of the week, all students shall be exercised in the Greek and Hebrew tongues only; beginning logic in the morning at the latter end of the year, unless their tutors see cause by reason of their ripeness in the tongues to read logic to them sooner. They shall spend the second year in logic with the exercise of themselves in the tongues; the third year principally in physics, and the fourth year in metaphysics, still carrying on the former studies. But in all classes the last days of the week are allowed for rhetoric, oratory, and divinity."

The first attempt to introduce a modern language at Harvard failed ignominiously, through the indiscretion of the teacher. About 1735 a number of the students were allowed by the faculty to take lessons in the French language of a certain Frenchman, Longloissoire by name. This man had no official connection with the college, nor was the study of French recognized as any part of the curriculum. Very soon Longloissoire was charged with disseminating doctrines not consistent with the safety of the college. He asserted, the charge ran, that "he saw visions, and that revelations were made to him," the character of which was opposed to social and civil authority. When the authorities learned of these heresies they forbade the students to attend his lectures. For nearly fifty years afterwards no further attempt was made to introduce the study of modern languages in the New England colleges.

As the seventeenth century drew near its close, the second American institution of higher learning was established, the College of William and Mary, at Williamsburg, Virginia, in 1691. For nearly a hundred years this college followed the classical lines. Then, Jefferson, "the first champion of modern studies in the college curriculum," began to exert his influence for reform and progress. In 1779, while governor of the commonwealth of Virginia, he was elected one of the visitors of William and Mary College. Of his achievements in the broad-

ening of the college, he says in his autobiography:

"I effected, during my residence in Williamsburg that year, a change in the organization of that institution, by abolishing the grammar school and the two professorships of divinity and oriental languages, and substituting a professorship of law and police, one of anatomy, medicine, and chemistry, and one of modern languages."

To Jefferson then, as Professor Adams affirms, must be given the credit of introducing "the first distinctly modern currents into the curriculum of William and Mary." This fact, in its relation to the development of the course of study in American colleges, is further brought out in that interesting historical pamphlet, "The Making of the Nation, the Contribution of the College of William and Mary," which was prepared by the president of the college, Lyon G. Tyler, who states that his college "was the first to abandon the Oxford curriculum and to adopt the elective system, which it did as early as 1779 under the auspices of Thomas Jefferson." Again, President Tyler says: "There can scarcely be any doubt that the chair of Mr. Bellini, of modern languages, embracing French, Italian, Spanish, and German, established in 1779, was the first of its kind in the United States." From this time on there seems to have been no period when the modern languages did not have an honorable place in the curriculum of William and Mary College.

An incident at Brown University shows the influence the Revolutionary war exerted toward bringing about a greater openness to foreign influences. In 1776 the city of Providence was in the hands of the British. The college was actually closed until May, 1782. When finally opened, the building was found to be in very bad condition owing to its occupancy as barracks and as a hospital. After the college was reopened, President Manning felt the need of broadening the college curriculum by the introduction of the study of the French language, and the following memorial was drawn up to the French king in the hope that a collection of books and a professor might be secured. The memorial is reproduced in Dr. William Howe Tolman's "History of Higher Education in Rhode Island," and reads:

"Ignorant of the French language, and separated as we were by more than mere distance of countries, we too readily imbibed the prejudices of the English — prejudices which we have renounced since we have a nearer view of the brave army of France, who actually inhabited this college edifice; since which time our youth seek with avidity whatever can give them infor-

mation respecting the character, genius and influence of a people they have such reason to admire — a nation so eminently distinguished for polished humanity. To satisfy this laudable thirst for knowledge nothing was wanting but to encourage and diffuse the French language; and that not merely as the principal means of rendering intercourse with our brethren of France more easy and beneficial, but also for spreading far and wide the history of so celebrated a race of kings, statesmen, philosophers, poets, and benefactors of mankind which France has produced."

The matter of presenting this interesting address to the French king was entrusted to Thomas Jefferson, but he deemed the time inexpedient, and nothing came of the matter. The course of study at Brown University continued within classical confines until the administration of Francis Wayland, the prince among American educators. During his administration, which extended from 1826 to 1855, President Wayland elaborated a university plan which was new to American institutions, and which was in many respects original with him. In this report, which he presented to the corporation, Dr. Wayland appeared before the whole country as the advocate of a "new system in education." Among the things recommended in the report were the following: a course in Latin, occupying two years; a course in Greek, two years; a course in three modern languages. The report, though favorably received, was only partially put into operation.

The most decided impetus to the study of modern languages was given by Henry Wadsworth Longfellow at Bowdoin. In his inaugural address, delivered August 17, 1830, Professor Longfellow set forth that spirit which he, more than any other man, has caused to prevail in modern language study. He said:

"I cannot regard the study of a language as the pastime of a listless hour. To trace the progress of the human mind through the development of language, to learn how other nations thought and felt and spoke, to enrich the understanding by opening upon it new sources of knowledge, and by speaking many tongues, to become a citizen of the world — these are objects worthy the exertion their attainment demands at our hands."

With such a spirit, and with his attainments and enthusiasm for his theme, it is no wonder that Professor Longfellow had loyal pupils and that he awakened lifelong enthusiasm. One of his pupils, the Rev. Dr. Samuel Harris, thus writes of him:

"He had secured a large place for his department in the curriculum and he awakened great enthusiasm among the students. . . . Under his teaching we were able to gain a knowledge of these languages which it was easy to retain and complete after graduation so as to use them through life in the study of their

respective literatures. But he did not attempt to teach us to converse in them. His literary attainments, spirit, and enthusiasm did not fail to exert an inspiring and refining influence on those thus associated with him through four years."

Throughout New England colleges at this time the classics yet held their honorable and prescribed position and were in the main taught in the old time-honored way. Modern languages held a very uncertain place indeed. At Harvard, Professor Ticknor was professor of modern languages, but their place there was far less prominent than at Bowdoin under Henry Longfellow. At Yale, teachers in French and Spanish were recommended by the faculty, but the students paid extra fees for such instruction, and the modern languages were not recognized in the course for a degree.

But Harvard was awake and preparing for leadership. In 1836 Professor Longfellow accepted the chair of modern languages which Harvard offered him. Professor Ticknor wrote just before his resignation in 1833:

"I have succeeded entirely, but I can get these changes carried no farther. As long as I hoped to advance them, I continued attached to the college; when I gave up all hope I determined to resign. If therefore the department of modern languages is right, the rest of the college is wrong."

In spite of seeming obstacles Professor Longfellow entered upon his work with enthusiasm. Dr. Edward Everett Hale, in his recent book, "Lowell and His Friends," thus writes of Harvard in 1834:

"In this college they studied Latin, Greek, and mathematics chiefly. But on modern language days, which were Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, there appeared teachers of French, Italian, Spanish, German, and Portuguese. Everybody not a freshman could take his choice of these, called 'voluntaries,' when you had once chosen you had to keep on for four terms. But as to college marks and the rank which followed, a modern language was worth only half a classical language."

Then he speaks of Professor Longfellow:

"In 1836, when Lowell was a sophomore, Mr. Longfellow came to Cambridge, a young man, to begin his long and valuable life in the college. His presence there proved a benediction, and, I might say, marks an epoch in the history of Harvard. . . . He was fresh from Europe and gave the best possible stimulus to the budding interest in German literature."

A recent report shows that Harvard now offers three hundred and forty-six distinct courses from which the student elects, guided by his own needs and by the counsel of the professor in charge of the department or courses. In Greek language and literature fifteen courses are given, in German eighteen courses, in French fourteen courses, in Italian

and Spanish three courses each; while numerous and extended courses are offered in Greek and Romance philology. The catalogues and bulletins of our other great universities, east, west, and south, show in many instances almost as great equipment and as liberal and extensive courses.

A study of catalogues and schemes of studies, both required and elective, reveals the great development which has taken place in the Greek and French courses in our colleges and universities. The smallest college in the land gives a broader course in the languages, both ancient and modern, than Harvard gave a century ago. Only types can be given showing the courses provided in our institutions.

In some of the smaller colleges of the east, as well as the south and west, the professor in charge of one of the classics also gives instruction in one of the modern languages. In the Hampden-Sidney College, Virginia, which has maintained its rank for a century and a quarter, the professor of Greek is also professor of French, yet so well are the courses distributed that before the college career is ended the student has been introduced to the best literature of the Greek and the French civilization. In both, an accurate knowledge of the structural elements of the language is encouraged, and special emphasis is placed upon "the literature as a whole and its development as an expression of the nation's part and influence on the world's history."

At Brown the spirit of the Greek department is thus expressed:

"In our college work we lay emphasis on the humanizing element in Greek. We want to make good Grecians in the ordinary acceptation of the term, but one must use Greek literature, not as a discipline only, but for enlightenment and inspiration. We would not slight the letter, but we magnify the spirit. We seek to make the student at home under Greek skies and the atmosphere of old Greek life and art and thought."

Syracuse University is a unique example of rapid and strong growth among the younger institutions. Its courses are too numerous and too extended to admit of particular mention, but this statement comes from the French department:

"Most stress is laid upon the literature and philosophy. The attempt is constantly made to show that an intimate relation exists between the history and the literature of France, that from 1550 down to the present time there has been a continuous and readily traceable development."

Among colleges for women, Vassar is notable in that from the first French was put on a footing of absolute equality with Greek.

About ten years ago the department was enlarged, and additional French literary courses were given to parallel the courses in the history of the French Revolution and of contemporary France. The aim of the department is mental discipline and moral inspiration, and to bring the pupil face to face with the literature as it affects the national life.

Oberlin College, in the middle west, asks an entrance requirement in three languages, and that the student have at least some proficiency in one modern language. The conditions of the middle west are such that the majority of those entering Oberlin present German instead of French, and in the elective college courses German is in the lead because of its supposed greater utility. The French department, which for the last ten years has been known as the Romance department, is strong and progressive. The aim of the department, while not losing sight of the important work of pronunciation and grammatical structure, is this: "To teach that which will build up noble thoughts and character, and to show the place and importance of French in the world's literature." For practical ends there is the "Cercle Français" where French only is spoken, and the required work of the college is supplemented by reading additional French authors in the language.

The University of California at Berkeley offers all that well-nigh unlimited resources can give. Greek is demanded for entrance and must be taken in course through the freshman year, after which it is elective. The work of the freshman year is largely in the grammar and the study of language forms, after which the work is rapidly progressive, reaching to careful study of classical archaeology, including sculpture, architecture, the monuments, topography, and the Acropolis of Athens.

The University of Chicago has attracted attention by some decided but well sustained departures from tradition, especially in its classical departments. The statement is that three majors are now required in Greek, one in Zenophon's "Memorabilia" and Plato's "Apology," one major in the "Odyssey," and the third major to be selected by the student from the wide field of electives offered. A course which has awakened much interest among educators is a Greek course in English, which is thus described by the head of the department:

"A department of literature in English has been established in the university within the last two years,

and courses in Greek literature, through the medium of translation, are offered in connection with courses in literature of other nations through the medium of English. The English-Greek work of this department is not distinct from that of other work, but is part of it. A few courses are offered each year and they appeal to a few persons who have no knowledge of the Greek language; and some of those who have a knowledge of the language have taken these courses as well. But experience so far seems to show that students who know the Greek language prefer courses in Greek literature through the medium of the Greek language."

At the opening of the university a few courses in archaeology were offered, but these have developed until now they comprise a distinct department. A very strong influence for this development came from the American school at Athens in which the University of Chicago has been represented both by instructors and students. The work in the French department has been equally strong and broad, and has in a general way been conducted like that of the Greek department. The emphasis of instruction is at first on the language, then upon the literature, and in the graduate work upon the philology.

After a study of the development of courses in Greek and French in American colleges and universities, and a survey of the place which each occupies in them today, the conclusion must be reached that neither has expanded at the expense of the other. When the modern languages secured a recognition approaching that of the classics, the place of the classics was enlarged. Another fact to be noted is that French, from the first, possessed a more humanizing interest and the methods used in teaching it were more natural; it is a living language, and possesses contemporary interests and influences. These things pointed the way to a better illumination of the classics.

The strife between the classics and the modern languages has virtually ceased; each group has its honorable place and both groups are to be desired. The world's history is not a volume of "hit and miss sketches," but is a story, the unity of which has been maintained from the first until now, and chapter is yet growing into chapter; its conclusion is far removed. Languages, literatures, and civilizations are the chapters in this yet open book; they are related as the members of an organism. Whoever reads the story, whether in the languages and literatures in which it stands originally told, or as transcribed and transposed into his own mother tongue, will find the "increasing purpose" of all the ages.

FROM PINDAR.



INDAR is the unchallenged chief of lyric poets of all time. Homer, Virgil, Dante may dispute the supremacy in epic poetry; Sophocles, Molière, Shakespeare may each have claims upon the primacy in drama; but none is so bold as to challenge comparison with Greece's greatest master of exalted, sonorous, majestic song. The ancients were less careful of biographical details than we moderns, and Pindar is only one of many great men whose birth we cannot exactly date. He was born about 521 B. C., near Thebes, in Boeotia, a country whose people were regarded with contempt by the keen-witted Athenians because of their general intel-

lectual dulness. But Pindar won a hearing and fame everywhere and became the great Greek national poet.

It is impossible to give any adequate translation of his noble odes, in which he sang the praises of the victors in the athletic games at Olympia and elsewhere. The following lines are the only considerable fragment of a dirge, perhaps in honor of some youthful athlete, in which the poet pictures the state of the dead. They form one of the comparatively few passages in Greek literature dealing with this theme, and their tone is in quite distinct contrast to most of the others in its hope of a happy immortality. — *Prof. W. A. Elliott, Allegheny College.*

LITERAL TRANSLATION.

Toīσι λάμπει μὲν μένος δελλού τὰν ἐνθάδες νύχτα κάτω,
For them glows brightly the power of the sun there at night down below
φοινικορόδοτοις δ' ἐν λειμώνεσσι προάστιον αὐτῶν
red-with-roses and in the midst of meadows -(is) pleasure-ground their
καὶ λιθάνεψ σκιαρὸν καὶ χρυσότοις καρποῖς βεβριδός.
both with the shaded and golden with fruits loaded,
Kαὶ τοι μὲν ἵπποις γυμνασίοις τε, τοι δὲ πεσσοῖς,
And some with horses feats-of-skill some with checkers
τοι δὲ φορμήγεσσι τέρπονται, παρὰ δὲ σφιστιν εὐανθής
and some with harps delight themselves among and them blooming
δῆκας τέθαλεν δλβος.
all abounds joy
δδμά δὲ ἐρατὸν κατὰ χῶρον κιδναται
fragrance also delectable throughout place is spread abroad
αεὶ θύα μηγνύνταν πυρὶ τηλεφανεῖ παντοῖα
evermore offerings they mingle in fire far-seen all sorts of
θεῶν ἐπὶ βωμοῖς.
of the gods upon altars.

PROSE TRANSLATION.

For them in the world below, while it is night here, the sun glows brightly, and in the midst of meadows red with roses is their pleasure-ground,* shaded with the incense-tree and loaded with golden fruits. Some delight themselves with horses and with feats of skill, some with draughts, and some with harps, and all bright-blooming joy abounds among them. Throughout that place is spread abroad a delectable fragrance, as evermore they mingle all sorts of offerings in the far-seen flames upon the altars of the gods.

* The word translated here "pleasure-ground" and rendered in the poetical translation "city of the tombs," means strictly a space outside a city gate, a suburb. Its significance here is due to the reference to the main pleasure-ground of Athens, which lay among the olive trees and garden outside the Dipylon Gate, in the same quarter where was the street of tombs lined with beautiful and costly monuments.

— *W. A. Elliott.*

METRICAL TRANSLATION.

For them the night all through,
In that broad realm below,
The splendor of the sun spreads endless light;
'Mid rosy meadows bright,
Their city of the tombs with incense-trees,
And golden chalices
Of flowers, and fruitage fair,
Scenting the breezy air.
Is laden. There with horses and with play,
With games and lyres, they while the hours away.

On every side around
Pure happiness is found,
With all the blooming beauty of the world;
There fragrant smoke, upcurled
From altars where the blazing fire is dense
With perfumed frankincense,
Burned unto gods in heaven,
Through all the land is driven,
Making its pleasant places odorous
With scented gales and sweet airs amorous.
— *John Addington Symonds.*

"OH, WHAT IS ABROAD IN THE MARSH?"

BY N. HUDSON MOORE.

THE first day in March that is in the least lamblike, I hasten to the bog. There I am sure to find some of the earliest signs of spring. In fact, before I get there I hear them, for the little dwellers in the swamp are as anxious as I am to be out of doors. I pass through the "Forest of Arden," my thicket of trees beside the "Wide Waters," as the canal feeder is called, and seek the lower level beyond the locks. Here are signs of spring indeed.

Do you know that mottled spear poking through the black, soggy soil? All winter, like a lance in rest, it has waited for the first moment of loosening frost to thrust itself forth. It is the sheath which protects the spadix covered with the minute flowers of the skunk-cabbage. This plant is always an object of compassion on account of its ugly name. How far it is removed in beauty from its cousin, the fair, white calla lily! Yet there are compensations even for the skunk-cabbage. It is welcomed as a first comer, and is eagerly sought, not by vendors alone who sell it on our city streets as a rare foreign lily, but by the bees.

You will be surprised, till you come to note it down, how early the bees start upon their labors. In the latitude of New York you may see these active miracles making a bee-line for the bog as early as the first week in March. Not the bumblebees, but those naturalized citizens, the honey-bees, are these first comers, hurrying along as soon as their chilled wings can bear them, eagerly searching for our poor despised friend, the swamp or skunk-cabbage.

If you ask what it is that the bee seeks in this humble plant, go to the bog and watch. Here comes a bee, not as gaily and lightly as she will fly a month later, but oh, how eagerly. She fairly rushes into the homely horn of the cabbage, the point of which has been turned to one side, and lights on the spadix. How she revels in the wealth of pollen stored there!

The very first thing a bee needs in the spring is pollen for bee-bread, and how well she knows where to get it, even before pussy-willow or the catkins dangle in the breeze. She is in an ecstasy of pleasure, rolling in it, kicking it about and throwing it around

till it gets all over her back and body. When she is fairly dusted with it, she neatly combs it off with those handy little implements she carries on her legs, moistens it a bit, rolls it, pats it until she gets a load into her pollen-baskets, then home she flies.

Is not the odor of the skunk-cabbage a hint to the bee as it is to the small black flies which come to it later? Nature never works without a definite object even in so evanescent a thing as an odor. Later in the year when the skunk-cabbage spreads abroad its heavily-veined, large leaves, it loses to a great extent the coarse smell which clung



SKUNK-CABBAGE.

to it in pollen time. It is a plant which it is pleasing to watch in all its forms. It has a quiet patience all its own, working out its destiny, which is to ripen seeds, without hurry and without fuss. This process takes the whole summer, for it is not till September that the hard, round, bullet-like seeds are ready to be shed.

All the time that we have been watching bee and plant, the air has been filled with a cheerful thrilling whistle quite delightful to the ear.

When one visits the bog for the first time

it is generally with the delusion that all the music there is made by the bull-frog in the pool, and that all frogs are about the size of the common garden toad. It is with wonder that we find how tiny are these first shrillers, the adult specimens of several species not being more than an inch, or an inch and a half long. All over the country one may find varieties of these little peepers, and they amply repay study. Even if one may not discover any new fact about them, it is pleasant to verify old ones; and the knowledge of each form of life wrested from nature forms a bank on which to draw for future reference, and a source of unestimated pleasure.

In watching these small frogs the first fact brought to your attention is the volume of sound produced by the small organ they undoubtedly possess. As soon as the ice melts somewhat, they leave the mud where they have lain all winter, and pipe the coming of the vernal season.

The one with the most thrilling note is Pickering's frog (*Hyla Pickeringii*). He is yellowish in color, marked with darker spots of the same color. More ornate in dress is the pretty "bog cricket" (*Acris gryllus*). His coat is a hunter's green, picked out with spots of black, and tracings of white and rusty red. He is very abundant in New Jersey swamps, but seldom found farther north than Connecticut.

There is a western peeper, easily distinguished by his markings. He is called the "three-striped frog," and is of the same diminutive size as those already mentioned. If you can catch a sight of one of these bags-o'-wind, a Pickering's frog, for example, you will be well repaid for a long, cold tramp. He has a sac of loose skin beneath his chin, and it is this bag which he swells up, and then with all his strength expels the air, almost suffering collapse with the effort. In a moment, however, he is at it again, and the shrill whistle quavers on the air.

His sojourn in the bog is his nuptial trip,

for it is in the water that the eggs are laid. After the breeding season ends, they leave the bog, and, aided by the little pads upon their toes, climb trees and live in bushes and vines.

For the last year or two several of these tiny creatures have lived for weeks in a honeysuckle vine under constant observation. It is a mystery when they sleep. Their piping is heard the last thing at night; one cannot get out on the piazza before they are choiring in the morning, and they keep it up with more or less vigor even through the noon tide.

Pickering's frog has a large range, from the plains to the Atlantic, and from Florida to Canada.

There is a southern frog, small and musical also, with a range from the far south to North Carolina. It is one of the varieties of the *Acris gryllus*. Its cousin, the *Acris gryllus crepitans*, has a more northern range, which is being slowly extended. The genus *Hyla* includes fully one-half of that great family *Hylidae* which spreads itself over the leafy part of the world. It is largely by its ministrations that the great army of insect pests is kept within reasonable bounds, and we salute our little friends in the bog, not only for their cheerful minstrel qualities, but on account of the noble work they do as hunters.

When we consider the millions of eggs deposited by these different species of frogs, it seems as if at any time a plague of them might overrun the earth. There is, however, a variety of causes which keep them reduced to reasonable limits. Many of the pools where these eggs are placed dry up in the hot sun, and the tadpoles perish in uncounted numbers. Snakes find the young frogs particularly tasty morsels; birds devour many more, and worst of all the larger batrachians devour countless numbers of their weaker and smaller relations.

It is easy and interesting to obtain from the edge of marshy water some of the egg masses, and watch them develop through the successive stages of egg, tadpole, and frog. As they emerge into the frog state and the breathing apparatus changes, you must lower the water in the vessel which contains them, and provide bits of wood for them to rest upon in the air. It is only kind to liberate them when an insect diet becomes necessary.

There is another resident in the marsh that I hope to catch a glimpse of on my earliest visit. I look for him in pools and ponds, and, though I can see him all summer, he is more interesting now. To find something so lively with the temperature about



HYLA PICKERINGII.

forty degrees is to put new life into one! He is a water-beetle (*Gyrinus*), and he circles round in such a lively manner that the name "whirligig," has been given him. Nature has been lavish in fitting him out to cope with fate. His feet are webbed for swimming. If this mode of progression wearis him, he may unsheathe a pair of gauzy wings which are snugly tucked away beneath a pair of shiny black covers. Lest he should find difficulty in rising to the surface after one of his lightning dives, a bubble of air is caught below the tips of his wing-cases. It makes him so buoyant that if he wishes to stay below he has fairly to hang on to weeds or roots. Then, too, what an outfit he has for spying enemies. He can see our approach from afar with that pair of eyes on the top of his head. If some hungry creature prowls below him he can swim out of the way like a flash, for he has a pair of eyes looking downward, protected by good strong goggles. When Dame Nature goes to work, how she perfects a thing! Look at the whirligig; examine a bee; study the skunk-cabbage. How could a frog be better adapted to its conditions of life?

MARCH NOTES.

A correspondent in Southern California thus describes Christmas day: "We spent the whole day out of doors enjoying the sunshine, birds, and flowers. We did not see a white man during the whole time, and only a few Indians." This seems almost like a return to the days of 1492.

In this less ardent climate I feel satisfied during the first week in March with bee, blossom, and beetle. Twice during the last half dozen years I have had the happiness of hearing robin sing on March 12. In the west, even in this latitude, he sometimes appears by mid-February. In the south Atlantic states he comes early too, but north of New York he is in good time if he arrives by the middle of March.

The third week is more eventful yet, for,

"Hark! 'Tis the bluebird's venturesous strain,"

that salutes us some morning unexpectedly. Sometimes after the arrival of the earliest birds we may be afflicted with a blizzard. It is then that the bird-lovers should be up and doing. We should see that those birds about our houses have plenty of food. A "bird-hash" of crumbs, bird-seed, bits of chopped meat, and even scraps from the table, proves acceptable to seed- and insect-eaters alike. Do not forget a pan of water also.

Our public parks yield many surprises. Last March I had a unique experience in Central Park, New York. Wandering through the shrubbery and hoping at best only to see the glossy English starlings which have become domesticated in the upper part of the city, I

was suddenly arrested by a song, a bird song so thrilling, so pervading, such prodigality of music that several minutes passed before the opera-glasses were called into play to find the singer.

There he was on a bare twig, a perfect little harlequin, gray, black, and white, and scarlet red in spots and dashes.

What was it? Song and bird were quite unknown. As the torrent of music still poured out, my attention was diverted by a movement near the ground, and there, hopping about on the bare bushes, was a bird of flame! Him I knew in a moment! The cardinal bird. Beside him hopped his mate, soberly grayish save for her beak, which was a glowing bit of pink coral. All this time the rills of melody came rippling down from the minstrel on the upper twigs, and only the falling night warned me away. The songster proved to be the English goldfinch which has become domesticated, and, as well as starling and cardinal, passes the winters in the park. Do our city bird-students appreciate the advantages of the parks belonging to every city the country over?

The unfailing courtesy of the Japanese is proverbial. There is at Atlantic City, New Jersey, a little tea-garden laid out as such an establishment would be in far-off Japan. It was open last March, and the Japanese, shivering in the stiff Atlantic breezes, were doing a slender business. Passing out I caught sight of some small gray objects dangling on a clump of bushes.

To my eager "May I?" assent was given, and I proceeded to denude the bushes. Seventeen of the bag-worm cases were captured. I hoped that the bushes, like the Japanese, were imported and that I should rear some tropical insects. But my find proved to be the ordinary bag-worm so well known in the south and west. They are very entertaining insects to observe. From the moment the eggs hatch, the young



BAG-WORM CASES.

make feverish efforts to get material for bags, and under your eyes will build them of paper, worsted, straw or anything you supply. The difference between male and female, their habits, the efforts of the poor imprisoned female to get carried about, shows a wonderful instinct. In the sketch observe that on a privet twig a bag is thatched with arbor-vitæ and consider the amount of traveling done by one poor worm in search of material.



NURSE.

MILK CARRIER.

PEDLER.

BROOM-SELLER.

TYPES OF RUSSIAN WOMEN.

RUSSIAN WOMEN. I.

BY ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.



F one may judge of the Russian woman from the general trend of comment by admiring but awe-struck foreigners, that remarkable person is the Egyptian Sphinx brought down to date, and garnished *à la Parisienne*. In short, a sort of exaggerated Circe and a stick of dynamite combined; for she is fast and fascinating, beautiful and devout, an atheist and a "mind," faithful and treacherous, a giddy-pated, uneducated flirt, and a strong-minded, clever, revolutionary plotter. I am in doubt as to whether such a composite concentration of qualities could be found even in the most versatile woman of Young America, where the electric impetus of the physical and other atmospheres is much more strenuous than it is in Russia. But every quality named, and many more, can be found in both sets of women. The Russian woman, in addition, is often compelled to manage a great estate in the country during her husband's almost permanent absence in the service of the state; she must often act as physician to the peasants for many miles around, and to her own family, even in serious emergencies at times. Between such duties, the care of her household and children, schools and philanthropic enterprises both in town and country, the Russian woman has her extremely capable hands quite full. Some of the most devoted family circles I have ever seen were in Russia. The very best strawberry preserves I have ever

eaten were made by a princess, who never allowed anyone to prepare such things for the family but herself. The American women certainly excel the Russian women in average beauty, in tasteful dress, in style. Beauty is rarer among Russian women (not among the men) than in America, while taste in costume and style are hardly to be met with outside of court circles, the very wealthy merchants' families who are not conservative, and a few members of the educated classes. Russian men of all classes, and Russian women of most classes, save the peasants, have charming natural manners. On the whole, Russian and American women can be fairly matched, class for class, except



PEASANTS DRINKING TEA.

in the case of the peasant class, which exists in the United States only in the form of



COSTUME OF PEASANTS OF SOUTHEASTERN VOLGA REGION.

COSTUME OF MARYA PAVLOVNA, WIFE OF GRAND DUKE VLADIMIR.

recently imported raw material for future "Americans."

The peasant class of women—the most important class in the nation as to numbers, present physical powers and undeveloped mental powers—is well represented by the group engaged in drinking tea. Their garments are of the "fashionable" type, according to the standard of these toilers in home and field; for alas! the beautiful and picturesque old costumes are "out of style" nowadays almost everywhere in Russia. In some remote districts, however, the grandmother to the court garb is still to be found. Catherine II. instituted the modification of the peasant costume, and of that worn by the court during the reigns of the old tsars of Moscow: and that costume is still used. The most magnificent examples are to be seen on the empress and grand duchesses, which I cannot better illustrate than by the portrait of Marya Pavlovna, wife of the Grand Duke Vladimir, whose sables will appeal to every woman's heart.

Between these two sorts of lilies of the field, at the opposite poles of the social scale—those who literally make the fields to blossom by their labor and the home to thrive by their care; and those who are as glorious in raiment as both Solomon and the Queen of Sheba—come the women who enlist our special sympathies by their efforts for the welfare of their sex and of mankind in general. There is no woman's suffrage question upon which to expend nervous vital-

ity, in a land which announces frankly in its proverb: "Woman's hair is long but her wits are short"—which some other lands are sufficiently polite to think, only. So feminine effort is directed into other channels. Many a woman, in court circles and the merchant class, has orphanages, hospitals on her estates, or some sort of practical charity to which she devotes much time, labor, and money. Even the peasant women, poor, hard-working as they are, accomplish marvels in the same line. In one of the great manufacturing towns on the Volga, there is a really remarkable set of hospitals, orphanages, and similar institutions, which were originated and are managed exclusively by workingwomen in the factories.

In Russia, as in other lands, the great majority of earnest men and women who roll



MME. ELIZAVETA BÖHM.

forward the wheel of progress, belong to the middle class. They are members of the lesser hereditary gentry, the daughters of

priests, or of professors and scientific men, who, very likely, are the sons of priests—women whom Fate has not lavishly dowered with worldly goods. These are the women who have created Russia's fine record in the direction of woman's education, and the like.

Before I speak of this very extensive subject in the chapter to follow, let me mention those who have distinguished themselves in art and allied industries. It is difficult, of course, to settle the question of precedence. Princess Marie Shakhovskoy, a pupil of the famous sculptor Antokolsky, and herself a frequent exhibitor, had charge of the Cottage Industries at the Chicago Exposition. The wares displayed there, and at the shop which she afterwards founded in New York, bore witness to the beneficent efforts of herself and other women to develop the useful and ornamental handicrafts which the peasant women exercise during the long winter months. But the woman sculptor who is best known abroad, and who gives vast promise for the future, is Teresa Feodorovna Rees of Moscow, the pupil of Professor E. Hellmer of Vienna. Her portrait busts are very strong and original. Among them is that of Mark Twain. In 1898 she won the greatest distinction for an artist—the Karl Ludwig gold medal—for a statue of "Lucifer," on the base of which are inscribed the words: "Art thou happy, thou image of God?" Evidently, he is not.

Among the women artists best known are the late Mme. Pelagaya P. Couriard, Mme. Elizaveta Böhm, Baroness Elena K. Wrangel, and Baroness Marya I. von der Palen, all true Russians despite their foreign names.

Mme. Couriard founded the Ladies' First Artistic Circle in St. Petersburg (though

some of the grand duchesses are often members. With the proceeds of its annual exhibition and sales it aids needy artists, their wives and children, in practical ways. Mme. Couriard herself was an associate of the Imperial Academy of Fine Arts, and held successful exhibitions in many cities of the continent,



TERESA FEODOROVNA REES MODELING A BUST OF MARK TWAIN.

as well as at home. Baronesses Wrangel and Palen are also associates (and were members of the Ladies' Circle), who exhibit yearly with the Imperial Academy, and also with the independent Perambulatory Exhibition, their work being chiefly water-colors.

Mme. Elizaveta Böhm is known in America, as well as most European lands, by her specialties—silhouettes and children in water-colors, particularly little ones in the fantastic costumes of Old Russia. In addition to many diplomas, she has received ten medals, among them four from the Chicago Exposition—for water-colors, for an edition of her silhouette books, for fans, and for decoration on crystal in the old Russian style. She has sent me a charmingly characteristic portrait, which shows her at work with a group of village children. The late Elena Polenoff was very well known in Russia for her illustrations, especially of Russian fairy tales, and for her designs for decorative woodwork and kindred objects.

At the head of intelligent promoters of domestic industries stands Mme. Sophie Davydoff, much better known than Princess Shakhovskoy, partly on account of her magnificent and authoritative volume published by imperial command on "Russian Laces and Lace-makers." She traveled all over Russia, collecting and photographing her material, and inspecting also the ancient rugs, of beautiful patterns and splendid texture, woven by the serfs before the emancipation. That industry she revived after first founding in



THE GREENHOUSE AND PUPILS AT BARONESS A. L. BUDBERG'S INSTITUTE.

women's clubs are frowned upon by the government), to which admission is secured by social standing as well as artistic talent, as

St. Petersburg the "Mary School of Lace-making," under the patronage of the Empress-Dowager Marya Feodorovna. At



MME. SOPHIE DAVYDOFF.

that school a score of little peasant girls, acquainted almost from infancy with the technique of rude lace-weaving, are lodged, fed, instructed in the elementary branches of learning, drawing, and designing, for the space of two years. At the end of that time they are entrusted with the weaving of

gold lace sown with seed pearls, for empresses and queens; and they are expected to impart their improved methods and patterns to the women of their districts on their return home, as sole recompense.

Mme. Davydoff's prominence and success in her branch of art industries may be judged from the fact that she has been sent by the government to France, Bokhara, and Central Asia on special missions; also, in 1892, with the aid of the

Ministry of Imperial Domains, she established organized woman's work in the districts of the Voronezh government, which had been most devastated by the great famine, opening schools for weaving, lace-making and embroidery in many places. She is chairman of the "Society for Encouraging the Training of Women in Handicrafts," at St. Petersburg. Such thoroughly practical and widely-beneficent activity merits extended notice.

Equally beneficent, and covering a range fully as great, is the work in which Baroness A. I. Budberg has been interested for years: the training of women of all classes in agricultural economy. After she had carried on a school for this training, on her own estate, at her own expense for years, the government officially recognized it, and last summer established an Agricultural School for Women, on the same lines, near Moscow, at a place where an Agricultural and Horticultural Institute for men has long existed—sometimes with American gardeners, by the way.

Other women have had schools, but the Baroness Budberg's, the one most frequently mentioned, may serve as an example of private enterprise working out a whole system which the authorities have considered worthy of adoption. Baroness Budberg's school has two courses: one for the "uneducated" class, which includes an elementary education in the "three R's," the other for the "educated" class, which is even more extensive than the remarkably broad one provided in the first instance. And what an education it is! For about one hundred dollars a year board and tuition are furnished, and the pupil is instructed in a list of practical branches which is too long to reproduce here. I may mention, however, dairy work and the preparation of a dozen or more sorts of cheese; the care of cattle, poultry, and bees; horticulture, agriculture, weaving, spinning, preserving, starch-, soap- and candle-making, setting the table for various occasions, care of linen, laundrywork, bookkeeping, hygiene, first aid to the wounded, care of the sick, cut-



NADEZHDA S. VASILIEFF.



MARYA G. SAVIN.

ting up of meat, smoking and salting meats, of sausage-making, confectionery and pastry. To this list, for the educated class — the mistresses of the manor of whom I have already spoken — are added arboriculture, zoölogy, chemistry, mineralogy, drawing, political economy, knowledge of machinery (a vastly important item on a big estate), the veterinary surgeon's art, with some practical instruction in the care of fruit trees. What finally induced the government to adopt the idea of these enterprising women was that the minister of agriculture was besieged with letters from estate owners asking for women with such training.

The opera and the stage have long had first-class artists, as is to be expected from so musical and emotional a race as the Russians. The famous Mme. Marya G. Savin recently celebrated the twenty-fifth anniversary of a career on the stage of the Imperial Theater which has won for her the title of "the Russian Sarah Bernhardt." Like Mme. Bernhardt, she preserves her wonderful youthfulness of appearance. She has created an astonishing number of parts, comic, tragic, and dramatic, being especially noted for her characters in Ostrovsky's plays drawn from the life of the conservative old merchant class, and national subjects. She even won applause on the Berlin stage, though she played a German drama in Russian, incomprehensible to the audience.

Another excellent artist, Nadezhda S. Vasilieff, the daughter of capital actors, retired not long ago from the stage of the Imperial Theater after a very successful career of over twenty years. She was also entrusted with the important work of reading plays, and of teaching in the Imperial Theatrical School.

At the Imperial Opera, Mme. Eugenie Konstantinovna Mravina has delighted the public with her beauty, dramatic talent, and crystal-clear soprano voice for fourteen years, and has had great success in England, France, Germany, and

Belgium. Her repertory of Russian and Italian operas is very large. So is that

of Mme. Marya Alexandrovna Slavin, who has graced the stage of the Imperial Opera for over twenty years; in such rôles



MME. PELAGAYA P. COURIARD.

as "Carmen," "Amneris" (in "Aida"), and the like, while Mme. Marya Danilovna Kamensky sings mezzo-soprano and contralto parts in over thirty operas. All these women are generally spoken of by their surnames, in the feminine form, which most Russian surnames are susceptible of taking, and which is not disrespectful: Savina, Mravina, Slavina, Kamen-skaya, etc. I may remark that the operatic stage is the only career for singers in Russia, as musical societies



A LAY SISTER.

are very few, and therefore concerts do not offer a livelihood. Moreover, as the music in churches is performed by choirs of men and boys (with no instrumental accom-



A. N. TOLIVYEROFF-PYESHKOFF.

paniment), that does not offer an opening to women; while the fact that the ecclesiastical music—entirely different from western church music in every way—indulges in no solos,—the opportunities for men (except in a certain limited line) are almost as unpromising.

There have been and still are many women writers in Russia; but none of them has risen to the first rank; although Mme. Marco Vovtchok (pseudonym), wrote tales in Little Russian which the great Turgenev considered it worth his while to translate into Great Russian for the benefit of his compatriots. Women do not play as prominent a part in newspaper work as they do in America; fashion journals are rare. Mme. A. N. Tolivyeroff-Pyeshkoff is one of the women who has made a profession of literature, and

has written, for nearly thirty years, in all the leading journals and monthlies. Her special talent has been in the line of stories for children, and she long acted as manager of a journal for children called *The Toy*. Perhaps the most learned among women writers is Anna Mikhailovna Evreinoff, whose works on ancient customary law, philological questions and the like are well known. For five years she was the proprietor and editor of a first-class monthly magazine founded by herself, the *Northern Messenger*. She failed in this undertaking, through lack of experience. Quite recently, against competent advice, she came to America in the hope of retrieving her fortunes, and of earning enough money by lecturing on her specialties to publish another weighty book. But she found few auditors, and carried back to Russia a decidedly unfavorable impression as to the tastes and education of American women.

(To be continued.)



FINNISH WOMAN
IN ST. PETERSBURG.

Little Russian which the great Turgenev considered it worth his while to translate into Great Russian for the benefit of his compatriots. Women do not play as prominent a part in newspaper work as they do in America; fashion journals are rare. Mme. A. N. Tolivyeroff-Pyeshkoff is one of the women who has made a profession of literature, and



WOMAN OF A FINNISH TRIBE
ON THE VOLGA.

THE STORY OF A MICHIGAN FARM.

BY ANDREW BURNS CHALMERS.

LESS than half a century ago, a sturdy Scotchman, who was born in Perthshire, and his wife, who was born in Enniskillen, North Ireland, moved with their three small children, two boys and a girl, into the wilds of central Michigan. They settled on pine land, five miles from the nearest village and railroad station. They bought, for a pittance, forty acres of sandy soil from which the timber had been removed. They took shelter in a friend's log house until the father could put up his own rude log cabin. This cabin had only one room, and but one door. It was covered with clapboards, riven with frow and mallet from the oak. The only bed had but one leg, but was more firm than beds with four legs. It was constructed in the corner of the room, by boring two large

auger holes in the logs, into which the pieces forming the end and side of the bed were placed. These pieces, coming together at right angles, needed a perpendicular support from the floor to complete the frame of the bed. This bed could not be moved out for sweeping purposes. It was a stationary bed, and would move neither laterally nor perpendicularly, for it had no springs. When the father had improvised a table, some stools, and a trundle bed for the children, the home was furnished.

Not an acre of the forty was cleared for cultivation. There was not a horse, cow, sheep, pig, or chicken owned by the family. The first months were spent in cutting shingle bolts from the poor pine left by the lumbermen. When the shingles were made by hand, an ox team was hired to haul them five miles or more to market, and get in return

a sack of coarse flour or corn meal with which to feed the ever increasing family.

In the spring the father put on spiked boots, took a peavey, and "run logs" down Duke creek and Rouge river. In the summer the mother pi'ked redberries and blackberries in the pine slashings of the neighborhood, carried them five miles to the village, and sold them, or exchanged them for sugar or calico. One day she arose with the dawn, did the family washing before mid-forenoon, and picked with the uncertain aid of the older children, who bore on their unprotected feet and legs the marks of their service among the briars of the blackberry patch, a ten-quart pail of berries before she prepared the midday meal. After dinner she left the older children in charge of the younger, carried the pail of berries to town, and sold them for sufficient to buy an old-fashioned iron tea-kettle, which she carried all the weary miles home, where she arrived with the dying day. That night she slept well on the one-legged bed, caring not that it had no springs; for work and weariness brought refreshing sleep.

A new moral force and an intellectual quickening came with this family into the township. Edward Denison had not yet left Oxford to become the father of the modern college social settlement work. He had not yet lived and died among the poor and vicious of the Whitechapel district of London, when this family with higher ideals came among the needy in mind and heart on these sandy plains. They did not come to consciously apply the social settlement idea to the rural community. They came to the woods of Michigan to make a home in which to rear and educate their children. It was farthest from their thought that they were to make the social center for the neighborhood life. They did not announce to their new friends and neighbors that they had come to make a model home, and rear a model family, so

that the homes and children of the community might be saved by imitation. They came to cast their family life into that community life, not for a transient stay, but for all the brooding years of the life of the family, until the children had flown to work and ways far removed from the old home.

When word was passed for miles around, "Come to neighbor John Black's logging-bee on Saturday afternoon," the ox teams and "all hands" from all the country round would come with hand-spikes strong, and, dividing themselves into crews, would leave ten acres of log heaps ready for the burning before the call for supper, with the peaceful pipe on the part of the men, and the giddy games on the part of the young, for dessert. The logging-bee was the first social center of the community. The wives and children always came to help prepare and eat the evening meal, and to enjoy the social pleasure, with music and dancing after candle light, in the low log house.

The Scotchman, with his family, always went to these gatherings, working, eating, and smoking with his neighbors. The whiskey jug was the only part of the fellowship which he refused, and through his influence cold spring water soon took its place.

It was at one of these social gatherings, while the women were lingering long over the tea-cups, and the boys and girls were playing hide and seek in the gathering dusk, that he suggested to the men as they sat smoking the pipe of friendship, that the children, whose voices could be heard calling and laughing on every hand, should have the privileges of a school. He said that steps should be taken at once to have a schoolhouse built on the north and south road, at the section line, where the new cross-road would be put through; and the schoolhouse was built, for all the men needed was a suggestion, they, too, feeling the importance of an education.



"THE OLD LOG HOUSE ON THE HILL."



"THE HALL THAT BECAME A CHURCH."

The man who molded the community mind thought they should have a frame rather than a log schoolhouse, as a "more stately mansion" for the mind culture of the community, and the neighbors thought so too; and it was built. This man, who had gone to school in Perth, Scotland, was always on the district school board, always favored a longer term, and always moved for paying higher salaries to teachers. He voted for a better schoolhouse, and the longest possible terms, and the highest salaries to teachers, after his children were all graduates of the country school, and when he paid more taxes than any other man in the district.

Within a few years from the time the family had settled here, they were able to build a larger and better log house, one with two rooms and two doors, with shingles on the roof, and with a low upstairs room, where some of the older children might sleep.

The children came two or three years apart, until there were ten. The oldest, a baby boy, had been left asleep over the sea, and the youngest, a boy, stayed a few days, and then was taken to the little country burying-ground, near the farm, and was put to bed beside his grandmother, his father's mother, who had fallen asleep in the new world, far from the land where she loved, and labored, and lost. The other eight children, four boys and four girls, lived, and are living today. The five born on the Michigan farm were born in the old or in the new log house. All the children went to the district school as many months in the year as the school funds would allow. The older boys attended the winter term of four months, and worked on the farm in the summer. Many were the sacrifices made by that father and mother, that those eight children might have clothes and books for school. Some of the neighbors thought best to keep their children from school for trivial reasons. In this family, an education was important.

The servant girl question did not trouble that mother. She did all her work, washing and ironing included. She made every garment that was worn by that family of ten. She made the caps, and knit the stockings and mittens—even spun the yarn from the wool that the father had shorn from the sheep in the spring, and had taken to the carding mill. Whenever she rested, she would knit; and whenever she was walking back and forth beside the spinning-wheel, she would sing. While the children slept at night, she would sew, and often sew and bake at the same time, while the father sat

and read for hours during the long winter evenings in the log house. Sometimes the older children were permitted to sit up and listen to the father's reading, and so they early learned to love the best literature.

As the farms became cleared, and the logging-bee ceased to be a gathering place, this father and mother felt the need of a social center for the community life. There was no sympathy with the church in the neighborhood. Lumbermen and river men were still quite a factor in the life of the district. Besides this lack of sympathy on the part of the community, there was a lack of denominational unity in this family, for the father was a Scotch Presbyterian, and the mother was a Roman Catholic.

This external difference was not allowed to disturb the essential religious unity of the family life. The children knew nothing of this denominational difference. They knew that they were taught to pray every night before going to bed, and were told the Bible stories, and were led to live the unselfish life. The difference in religious faith made no mar in the religious practise of the family. When the father prayed at meals, or at bedtime, the children knew not that it was a Presbyterian prayer; and when the mother had the little ones kneel beside her and offer their childish prayers, closing with, "Now I lay me down to sleep," they never knew that it was a Roman Catholic who taught them, for she was their mother.

Thus it came that they formed in their own home a temperance society for the community, in the form of a lodge of the Independent Order of Good Templars. This became the church of the community. The father gathered the men of the neighborhood together, and they built beside the schoolhouse a fine frame building—the best building of any kind for miles around—and this came to be the social, intellectual, and moral center of the township life. The father felt that the influence of such an organization would meet the needs of the community as well as would a church. He had once been under the influence of drink, before he came to Michigan, and had afterward pledged his Scotch word to his wife, over the cradle of their baby boy, that he would never again take intoxicants in any form as a beverage,—and his word was never broken.

This hall became the meeting-place of the neighbors for miles around, as they came at least once a week, for over a quarter of a century. The fathers and mothers and the young men and maidens were there. The

first place the babies were taken was to this gathering. It became the undenominational church and the literary club of all the country side. The boys and girls looked anxiously to their twelfth year, when they could become full members of this society. They were placed in office, they worked on committees, they learned how to write a report. There they learned how to sing; they heard the Bible read; they heard the chaplain — usually the Scotchman — pray; they learned parliamentary rules, and how to preside over a deliberative body; they took sides in debate, and made their first effort at amateur theatricals. The young ladies were called on for recitations, and the young men for impromptu "speeches for the good of the order." At intermission the young people met socially, and played games, with the fathers and mothers entering into the play or watching the boys and girls.

The organizer of this society formed a moot-court, and was elected judge; the bright young men were called as lawyers; and those less promising sat as jurors, or acted as court officers. The people would drive in from ten miles distant, and pack the hall, to hear these mock trials and to enjoy the fun. There are men in congress today who trace their inspiration back to that hall and those evenings of legal practise; there are men, not a few, who are preaching in pulpits of wide influence, east and west, who follow back the stream of advancement to the spring of intellectual and spiritual refreshment in that quiet place. There have been teachers by the score, who might never have entered the schoolroom, if that intellectual center had not been established. There are men and women by the hundreds whose lives are purer and truer because of the influence of this country neighborhood guild.

It became the custom of the place to meet at the hall for the Saturday half-holiday — and that was before the government adopted this rule. In the evening there was the regular weekly meeting, and this meeting was never omitted, winter or summer, for decade after decade.

The oldest of the eight children in this family was bent on an education. He would sit up in the loft of the log house, and by the light of a tallow candle would study late into the night, while other boys slept. When he had completed the work of the district school he walked five miles every morning to the village high school, walking back in the evening, caring little that the village lads and lasses joked of his home-

made clothes and country ways. They do not do this now, for he has since been professor in a great university, and president of a large educational institution, with hundreds of students sitting at his feet.

The second son left the district school at the age of sixteen, and having passed the teacher's examination taught a winter term of country school, receiving twenty dollars a month and "boarded round." Today he is being paid twenty dollars a day to superintend a great city system, with nearly one thousand teachers under his guidance.

These boys went to high school, and did chores and took care of furnaces and school-houses to earn their living; they boarded themselves, and lived on scant and not over-rich rations; they worked in the lumber woods; they "drove logs" and were "beat bosses" on the river in the spring; they cradled and raked and bound wheat in the harvest time to get money to complete their education. They would teach a year, and then go to school a year. They would carry their Latin and Greek books with them to the fields on the Michigan farm, and study when the horses rested. They plowed around pine roots, with Greek roots in their minds, and when the plow struck a hidden stone and the handle suddenly sought their sides, they would find a Latin phrase on their lips when others might have used poor English.

The father could not help these children to the financial means for an education; he gave them the inspiration, and they helped themselves, the older ones loaning and giving money to the younger ones, until the eight had diplomas, and five of them college and university degrees, two of them taking postgraduate courses in German or Scottish universities. They all were teachers at some point in their advancement.

When the family was well grown, there came a Michigan home missionary pastor who preached the Gospel in the common hall of the community. He was of another denomination than either the father or mother favored, but he preached what they had been practising all the years, and the wife said, "For the children's sake, we should unite with the church," and the little Irish Roman Catholic mother leading, the big Scotch Presbyterian father following, they made confession of their faith in Him who had been their Friend and Helper through all the years.

The old hall is still the center of the community life, but they call it a church now. The logging-bee and the fraternal society

led to the church. That father and mother saw every child of theirs first a member of the old fraternal society, and afterwards the family of ten were members of the church which evolved from it. Two of the boys became preachers, and now minister to the spiritual needs of large city parishes.

There was a wedding once in that little house on the hill, when the oldest daughter, who had come as a baby with the family to their new home, was given in marriage, the summer after she graduated, to a neighboring farmer's son who had just completed his college course.

When the children were all grown and gone away, the father and mother must go — so the children said — to live with the oldest

son, in a far-away city. But the father did not want to go, and if that same year he was laid to rest beside his mother and baby boy, under the sighing pines of the little country burying-ground, no one needs to know where. Not many will make pilgrimages to his unmarked grave; for he was unknown beyond the quiet neighborhood where he modestly lived and peacefully died.

If you could find that little woman who came with him from Enniskillen, Ireland, she would not tell you all the toils, and tears, and trials of those sacred days of long ago, for she was heard to say, long since and often, "The happiest days of my life were when I had him and my children, and lived in the little log house on the hill on the Michigan farm."

TRUSTS AND INTERNATIONALISM.

BY T. N. CARVER.

(Assistant Professor of Economics in Harvard University.)



E have been frequently told during the last few years that trusts are the natural outgrowth of industrial conditions. In so far as this statement means anything, it must mean that there are certain industries in which the advantages of large-scale production are so great, and where, in consequence, the smaller establishments must so certainly and so continually fail in competition with the larger, that in course of time these industries must of necessity be concentrated in a very small number of very large surviving establishments. The owners of these surviving establishments then agree to put a stop to the process by suspending competition. If this be the true explanation of the origin of trusts, they are natural products in that they do not owe their existence to, and could not have been prevented by, any legislative device. On the contrary, they were as far beyond legislative control as the precession of the equinoxes.

That in certain industries the advantages of large-scale production are very great, needs no proof. The only question is: Where is the limit beyond which further enlargement ceases to be advantageous? If in any industry that limit is reached long before the number of competitors is reduced to a few, a trust would be unnatural if not impossible. In agriculture, for example, a large farm may have certain advantages over a small farm, but the limit beyond which large-scale farming cannot be profitably carried is soon reached. It would therefore

be impossible for larger farmers to continue crowding out the smaller ones until the whole market for agricultural products could be supplied from a few enormous farms. For this reason an agricultural trust would be an impossibility.

On the other hand, there are industries in which large-scale production can be carried much further than in agriculture. In some it seems almost as though there were no limit at all to the profitable enlargement of individual plants. At any rate this limit has, in some cases, not been reached until the whole market has come to be supplied by a comparatively small number of large establishments. If the industry in question happens to supply an article which is not used in large quantities, as, for example, skewers for butchers' use, or machinery for making shoemakers' lasts, it may easily be concentrated in a few establishments which control the output, and are, to all intents and purposes, a trust. But such a trust is not considered dangerous, does not attract public attention, and, in fact, is not usually called a trust at all. But when the industry in question supplies an article which is used generally and in large quantities, its concentration in a few large establishments is a matter of greater public concern. The mere bigness of the combination attracts popular attention and inspires fear.

But the mere concentration of an industry in a few large establishments does not constitute a trust, it only creates conditions favorable to the formation of a trust. The

trust is formed only when some sort of a compact is entered into by the surviving competitors whereby competition among themselves is suspended. In its original form it was a mere agreement relating to prices and output. It has passed through several stages until finally the typical trust is a single huge corporation which has absorbed a number of competing corporations. Thus, in its original form at least, the trust was not a form of concentration, but a means of preventing still further concentration. There is always the probability that the same conditions which destroyed a large number of small competitors, leaving only a few large ones in the field, would continue in operation until all but one should succumb, leaving only a single surviving concern in complete and absolute possession of the field. In order to suspend these conditions, and to prevent this form of concentration, the compact is entered into. It is a sort of disarmament, or a measure for preserving the balance of power.

From many sources has come the suggestion that we are soon to have international trusts. It is true that the market for many products has become world-wide. It might therefore seem that the same conditions that have produced trusts on a national scale would, sooner or later, produce trusts on an international scale. But there are serious difficulties in the way. In the first place, the manufacturer does not, except in a few cases, feel the necessity of a suspension of international competition as keenly as he does the necessity of a suspension of competition among home producers. The home producers still have considerable advantages in their own market over the foreign competitor. In the next place, the difficulties are very considerable in the way of maintaining an agreement and preserving discipline among a number of producers of different nationalities, speaking different languages, living under different political and legal systems, and having different business methods and traditions.

There is another phase of the trust movement which seems likely to be reached before the international phase. There are signs of a coming struggle between the trusts and the labor unions. Such a struggle can have only one of two results. One party must succumb, leaving the other in complete mastery of the situation, or an agreement must be reached to suspend hostilities under a *modus vivendi*. The latter is the more probable. In England, where trusts

have not been organized on such a stupendous scale as in America, they have nevertheless reached a more advanced stage of development. This is found in a movement which is practically a combination of the trust and the labor union.¹ Under this combination the manufacturers agree not to sell below cost of production, to employ none but union laborers, and to maintain wages. In return, the labor unions agree not to work for any manufacturer outside the combination, nor for any one who violates any rule of the combination. Some such form as this seems likely to be the last stage of combination which we shall see for some time to come.

There are some very interesting analogies between the stage of economic development which produced the trust, and that stage of political development through which the world is now passing. It is not improbable that they are something more than analogies. As already suggested, the suspension of competition among a few large competitors in the industrial field bears a very close resemblance to the proposals for disarmament in the field of international politics. The sheer dread of a struggle between any of the great military powers is enough to create a very general desire for some other means of settling international disputes. Similarly, the sheer dread of a life and death struggle among a few huge competitors in the industrial field, involving the loss of millions, is enough to inspire all those directly concerned with a desire for a peaceable settlement.

It may be objected here that the disarmament or the suspension of hostilities among the members of the trust is accompanied by increased hostility toward small competitors remaining outside the trust. But it must not be overlooked that there have been few periods since modern history began when the weaker nations were so circumscribed, when their very existence hung by so slender a thread, as in these days of peace congresses and proposals for disarmament. This is more than a coincidence. The fact that the sentiment against war is so strong among the great powers, renders war among them much more improbable than it would otherwise be. For this reason, any one of them having designs on some weaker nation feels freer to carry out those designs than it otherwise would. It is less likely to stir up armed opposition on the part of another great power, and it can therefore go a little farther in its aggressions against the weaker

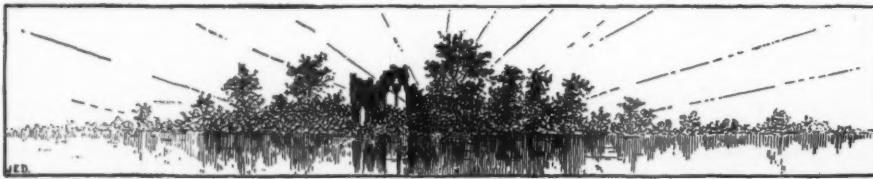
¹ See "The New Trades Combination Movement," by E. J. Smith (London, 1899).

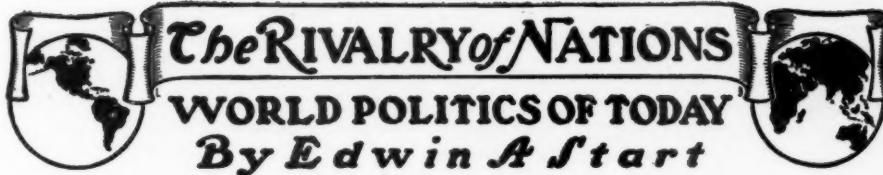
nations than it would otherwise dare to go. If France, Germany, or Russia were as ready to go to war with England as they once were, England would scarcely dare to commit the outrage she is now committing against the Transvaal. For a similar reason the United States would find it inexpedient to pursue her present Philippine policy. In the final disposition of China it would probably be better for her if the powers were a little less united. A little wholesome fear of the wrath of civilized nations would have done something to check the barbaric atrocities of the European troops in China. Spain, not being a great power, has learned that a cruel and inhuman method of suppressing insurrection may bring heavy penalties. But today at least two of the "world powers," being placed in similar positions, are seriously considering whether it is not necessary to adopt Spain's identical policy, under a different name.

Cheap transportation and efficient means for the transmission of intelligence are the conditions which, more than any others, have made possible the rapid concentration of industry. Adam Smith long ago pointed out that the division of labor is limited by the extent of the market. The advantages of large-scale production depend mainly on the better opportunity it gives for the minute division of labor. Before the days of cheap transportation, markets were necessarily local, or restricted in area. Those who produced for each local market had to be near at hand, where they were at a great advantage over those working at a distance. Manifestly there could then have been no such concentration of industries as we have seen in recent years. But with the coming of cheap transportation and the rapid transmission of intelligence came also a widening of markets. The local producer no longer had so great an advantage over distant competitors. A large producer half-way across the continent might invade the market of the local producer and crowd him out. Thus have cheap transportation and rapid transmission of intelligence given to large-scale production its opportunity to show its superiority.

In a similar manner has the concentration of political power, especially in the field of international politics, been favored by better means of communication. Without these means it is difficult to fuse large masses of people in a common feeling of nationality and to administer government over a wide extent of territory. Under such conditions small states are the rule. The Romans, wise in their generation, made the construction of their magnificent system of roads a part of their imperial policy. Present means of communication make possible empires larger than the Romans ever dreamed of. When the problem is solved of administering government over a wide territory, and of maintaining the spirit of nationality in a large mass of people, the advantage in international rivalry is with the larger state. Hence there is and will continue to be a tendency for the control of international affairs to pass more and more into the hands of a few great powers.

Moreover, as has already been pointed out, the formation of an agreement whereby competition was suspended among a few gigantic producers in certain industries was for the purpose of preventing still further concentration. It is equally true that in the field of international politics general disarmament, together with the doctrine of the balance of power, can alone prevent the realization of Charlemagne's or Napoleon's dream of a world empire. But this agreement to suspend industrial competition has proved incapable of preventing still further concentration. As stated above, that stage in the development of trusts has already been reached wherein a number of independent corporations are absorbed by a single gigantic corporation. But there has been a change in the method of concentration. Instead of a struggle for existence in which the weaker competitors are killed off or driven out of business, there has been substituted the process of peaceable absorption. It remains to be seen whether international disarmament will successfully inaugurate the process of "benevolent assimilation" as a substitute for the process of military conquest.





The RIVALRY of NATIONS

WORLD POLITICS OF TODAY

By Edwin A. Start

CHAPTER XX.

THE EXPLOITATION OF AFRICA.

THE most ancient of known civilizations was established in north-eastern Africa. In the valley of the Nile the old Egyptians lighted the torch that more aggressive races were to take up and pass along down the centuries. The coast countries of northern Africa, too, were intimately associated with the successive acts in the great Mediterranean drama, which involved the life and death struggle of opposing types of institutions and society, and finally of two great religions. But although isolated explorers and traders from the earliest times had discovered the existence of a great continental *hinterland* at the south, deserts of unknown extent barred the way to the southward and the interests of antiquity and of the middle ages centered about the Mediterranean. The coasts and interior of Africa did not offer a smiling face to civilized man. Berber, Semite, and Aryan ranged along its northern edge; but its deserts, its tropical jungles, its great interior highlands, and the more hospitable but wholly unknown southern extremity, were left to the dusky peoples who are the typical native Africans. Therefore, in this great continent, while the structure of western civilization was being reared elsewhere, races of undoubted antiquity, unknown by the civilized world, had their tribal societies, their wars, and conquests,—indeed, carried on in their own primitive ways the struggle for existence, and little else.

The first practical addition to European knowledge of Africa came with the Portuguese attempts in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries to find the eastward route to the Indies, when the daring explorers, trained and

[Chapters I.-IV. appeared in the October issue. The first was an introductory discussion of the significance of the present age, the expansion of the nations, the industrial revolution, the growth of democracy, and the world problems resulting from the interplay of these elements. Chapter II. explained the politics of Europe in the middle of the century, as turning upon the ideas of nationality and the revolutionary democracy; with the Eastern question as shaped in the Crimean war. In Chapters III. and IV. the development of England and France respectively in the last half century were traced, with especial reference to the rise of English democracy and the growth of republican government in France.

[Chapters V.-VIII. in the November number considered in a similar way the other four great powers of Europe, Germany, Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Russia.

[Chapters IX.-XI. in the December number dealt with the question of the near East. Chapter IX. described the reopening of the Eastern question after 1871, explaining the relations of Russia and Turkey and the status of the Turkish empire and the Balkan and Danubian provinces. Chapter X. discussed the developments from 1871 to the Russo-Turkish war of 1877-78, the results of the war and the treaty of San Stefano, and Chapter XI. the resettlement of the Eastern question by the Congress of Berlin, the resulting conditions, and the effect upon Russian policy.

[In the January number Chapter XII. discussed the consequences of the Congress of Berlin in the Balkan peninsula; Chapter XIII. considered Egypt as a factor in the Eastern question, and the British control; Chapter XIV. was a general introduction to the subject of Colonial Expansion; and Chapter XV., on "Imperial England," began an examination of the characteristics, methods, and extent of the colonial activity of the different European powers.

[Chapters XVI.-XIX. in the February number continued the study of the expansion of the great nations begun in January, Chapter XVI. being a study of the growth of the British imperial idea in its spirit and manifestations. A chapter on German colonial policy showed the consistency and studied character of German colonial methods, and another dealt with French colonization in its chief aspects. The closing chapter was on Russian expansion.]

Required Reading
for the Chautauqua Literary and
Scientific Circle.

Why Africa was so
early and so little
known.

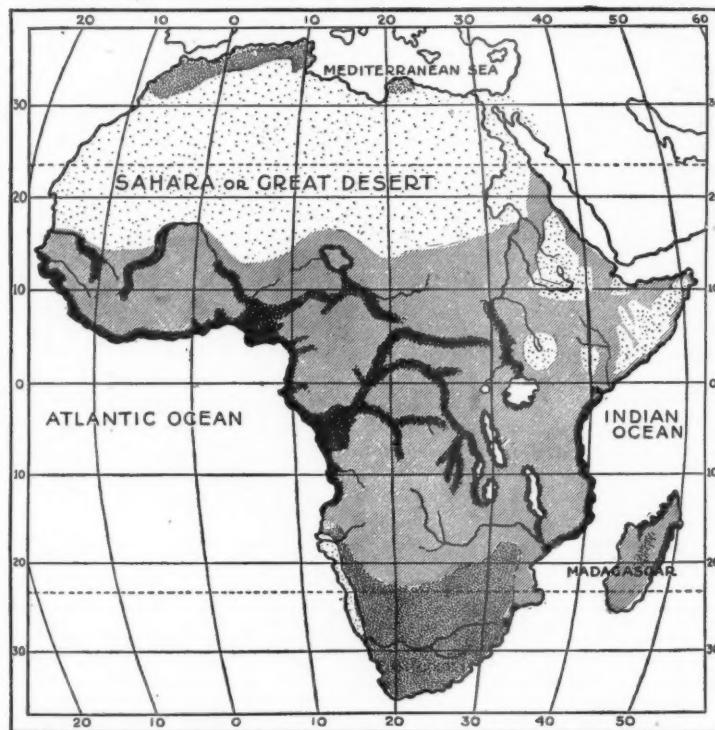
Summary of Pre-
ceding Chapters.

THE RIVALRY OF NATIONS.

Early Portuguese explorations.

inspired by Prince Henry the Navigator, pushed farther and farther down the west coast, and finally, rounding the Cape of Good Hope, explored the east coast and found the long-sought way to the Indies. The results of this work were Portuguese trading-posts at intervals on the east and west coasts of Africa, and the acquisition of some knowledge and much rumor in regard to the interior. But no traditions such as drew men to the golden East surrounded this land, then and always a dark continent. The wave-washed sands of its extended coast offered few inviting harbors;

COLONIZABILITY
OF AFRICA.



Key to Map.

[1. Now fully occupied or not wholly favorable climatically for Europeans. 2. Extremely unhealthy. 3. Unhealthy and uncolonizable, but productive. Where healthy white men can live for limited periods, carrying on plantations and trade. 4. Habitable by Europeans and subject to colonization.]

Later African explorations.

its lagoon-like river mouths were not attractive; its low, marshy, and unsalubrious coast lands repelled further acquaintance. Its rude inhabitants promised no rich rewards of commerce or spoils of conquest. Still, the two great incentives to discovery—traders' enterprise and missionary zeal—caused a steady though slow movement on the part of those European peoples that were at one time or another brought in contact with Africa, and when at the close of the last century that race that allows no land to remain unexplored, no mystery to be unsolved, had established itself in South Africa, irrevocable law decreed the complete and thorough exploitation of this least known of the great land masses of the earth.

From the fourteenth century onward there is recorded a constant succession of more or less aimless African explorations, chiefly by the

Portuguese, though after the middle of the eighteenth century Englishmen were very active. In the list of African explorers Mungo Park is the first great name, though he was only one of many who laid down their lives in the endeavor to penetrate the unwholesome Niger country. English attention in Africa in the first half of the century was concentrated upon this part of the continent because of the aroused English interest in the suppression of the slave trade; but Sir Harry Johnston's comment on the Buxton expedition of 1841—that its aims, in addition to the establishment of a model farm on the Niger, "were nicely balanced between the spreading of Christian civilization and the suppression of the slave trade on the one hand, and the zealous pushing of Manchester goods on the other," will apply in general to this work of opening paths into the Dark Continent. In 1850, with Dr. Henry Barth, a German in the English service, began the new line of modern scientific explorers, who worked with method and made marked additions to the world's knowledge of the African continent, its people, its fauna, and its flora. To this line belonged Livingstone, Stanley, Speke, Grant, Baker, Cameron, Schweinfurth, Johnston, and many others of lesser fame, but not less honorable service to civilization. By them the Niger, the Congo, and the Zambesi, the mountains and great lakes where are the sources of the Nile, the deserts, and interior and southern Africa, were explored. In a general way we may say that from 1788 to 1830 the chief work of African explorers was the exploitation of the Niger region and of the mysterious negro capital, Timbuctoo; from 1830 to 1850 attention was directed mainly to the Nile country and to South Africa; from 1850 to 1862 the problem was to bring into relation with each other northern and southern equatorial Africa, the countries of the Nile and the Zambesi, the Sudan and the Sahara; from 1862 until into the seventies attention was focused on the Congo; since that time scientific work has been addressed to filling the broad outline of knowledge acquired by the pioneers, while a new political problem has arisen in connection with the acquisition of territory and the colonization of tropical and sub-tropical Africa.

For twenty years several European powers, among them three of the first rank, Great Britain, Germany, and France, have been engaged in parcelling out territories aggregating hundreds of thousands of square miles and inhabited by tens of millions of people, chiefly of negro or negroid race. For the most part this has been done with singularly little friction, considering the magnitude of the problem. Perhaps in this very magnitude has been a safeguard for international relations, since the future of the continent has not been clear to the nations themselves until very recent developments have afforded means for a forecast. Furthermore, African questions have not yet come to rank with those of Europe, Asia, and America, which have been so much in evidence that they have drawn attention away from the movements within this continent, which is still the stronghold of savagery and barbarism. A third reason why serious international complications have not arisen from the African scramble is the vast areas which are here open to civilized occupancy. It has been possible for English, French, Germans, Portuguese, Italians, and Belgians to take all they could lay their hands upon and still not come into serious collision. This has been, but within ten years changes have taken place which have made Africa a factor in the international situation, although even now there is no immediate reason to suppose that African affairs will produce a conflict of nations. It is conceivable, however, that events might occur in Africa that would furnish the spark to fire a train that had been laid elsewhere.

However this may be, the healthy rivalry of European states in the exploitation and development of this undeveloped possibility among the continents is a very real part of that rivalry of peace which is more characteristic of the present age than any rivalry of war. In Africa the

The English on the Niger.

Barth and the scientific explorers.

Periods of African exploitation.

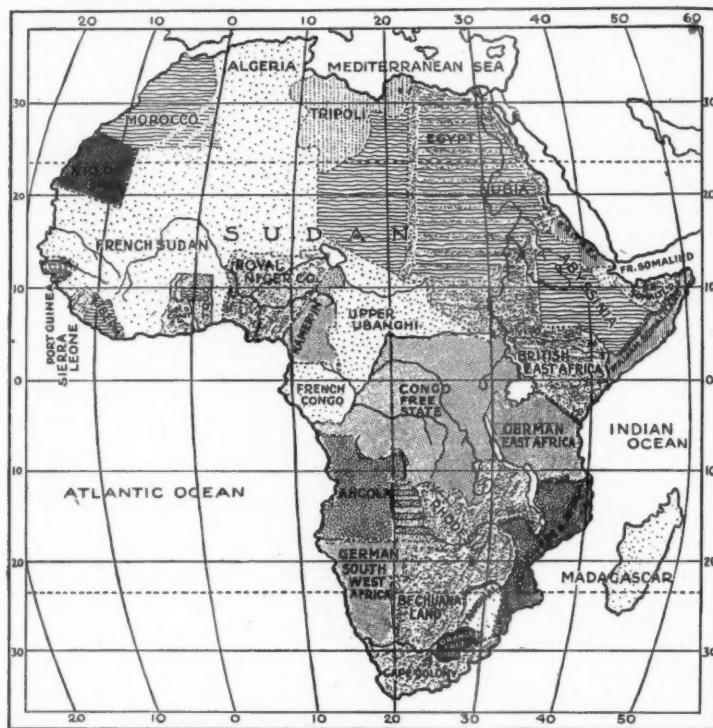
The new political problem.

Africa now a factor in international affairs.

A new problem for the West.

progressive West has found a problem different in several ways from that confronting it in any other quarter of the earth. Here, except Egypt and the Barbary States, were no civilized states, no institutions that were of value to any one except the ethnologist; according to the accepted practise of all the ages, this continent was open to the civilized peoples to do with it as they would. Its resources were the legitimate prize of those who knew how to utilize them. Here, too, was a numerous population to save from the slave-catcher and from its own degradation, and to

POLITICAL MAP
OF AFRICA.



Key to Map.

[1. French. 2. African. 3. British. 4. Italian. 5. German. 6. South African Republic (now British). 7. Belgian. 8. Spanish. 9. Portuguese. 10. Orange Free State (now British). 11. Turkish (Egypt is also nominally Turkish).]

People and climate.

bring to a better life. In availability of territory America and Australia had furnished a parallel to Africa, but experience has shown that the native populations in these cases were very different from the Africans. The American and Australian aborigines melted away before the advance of the white race, to whose occupancy these continents were well adapted. The dark races of Africa are of remarkable fertility and show no sign of diminishing in the face of the white advance, while much of Africa can never be made the permanent home of the white race, because of the climatic and physical conditions to which the native is adapted while the European is not. For many generations to come white administrators in Africa must reckon with a large native population. The native races are, therefore, of some importance as a part of the problem of Africa. It is

common to suppose that Africans are all negroes, but this is not so. On that continent for thousands of years different races of men have made their homes, had their great migrations, and struggled for mastery. The part of Africa occupied by true negroes was the broad belt extending from Senegal and the Guinea Coast eastward to Abyssinia, the country around the Victoria Nyanza, south to Lake Nyassa, and what is now the French Congo. There, too, in the depths of the forests lived a pygmy race, supposed to be the descendants of the primeval inhabitants who had been compelled to give way before the powerful negro tribes. In past centuries the southern part of the continent, from the Congo downward, was inhabited by the dwarfish Hottentots and Bushmen; but there developed on the upper waters of the Congo the Bantu negro tribes, all speaking dialects of the same mother tongue, who from two to three thousand years ago swept over the greater part of southern Africa in a series of migrations and invasions. The Basutos, Bechuanas, Zulus, Matabeles, and Mashonas, with other less prominent tribes, all known generically in South Africa as Kaffirs, are of Bantu stock. Northern Africa, with Egypt, Abyssinia, and Somaliland, was peopled in ancient times by Hamitic races, much lighter in color than the negroes, who probably came from the same root, but were much more progressive. Between this northern zone and the true negro belt was a region inhabited by a mixed negroid race, of whom the Nubians, Fulas, and Tibbus are representatives. Through all these regions, except the heart of central and southern Africa, where the negroid type has reigned undisturbed, Mohammedan Arabs have been distributed freely, representing all shades of semi-civilization. Indeed, the Arab slave-trader has been the curse of Africa for centuries and even now obstinately resists the combined efforts of the European governments to destroy his villainous trade.

Many tribes of
Africans.

Africa has had in progress ever since the Christian era, and earlier by several hundred years, its own barbaric international drama, its own wild game of craft and war, but century by century the stronger white races have encroached upon the happy hunting-ground of barbarism until now nearly all of Africa is actually or nominally under the regulation of some civilized power.¹ The story of Africa for the last quarter of a century is a story of steady and rapid invasion of the continent by trader, missionary, and colonist, and of the assumption by various European powers of sovereign or protectoral authority over large areas of territory not hitherto reclaimed from barbarism.

The history and
present status of
Africa.

CHAPTER XXI.

THE SCRAMBLE FOR AFRICA.

Until about twenty-five years ago the exploitation of Africa by Europeans had been conducted for the most part with that decorous deliberation which might have been expected from dignified states whose chief interests in the Dark Continent were those of science and religion. But the awakening of enthusiasm for colonies after the Franco-Prussian war gave a new interest to the attempt to shed light in this particularly dark corner of the earth, and the signal for what has been aptly called "the scramble for Africa" came from a quarter where it would hardly have been looked for, and in an unexpected way.

Beginning of the
fever for African
colonization.

Belgium, the French-speaking, Catholic end of the Netherlands, created an independent kingdom in 1830, is one of the most densely populated countries in the world and one of the most thrifty and industrially

¹ A luminous and suggestive forecast of the future of Africa, by one who is as well qualified to give it both by direct and personal knowledge and by sanity of judgment, as any man living, will be found in the concluding chapter of Sir H. H. Johnston's valuable little book, "The Colonization of Africa by Alien Races."

King Leopold and
the International
African Association.

active. Its need of some outlet for its superabundant population¹ and energies was very apparent to the present king, Leopold II., who, if he lacks something of the dignity and self-respect of high position, is certainly a keen and progressive business man. In the name of science and progress he effected in 1876 the organization of the International African Association, having the coöperation of prominent African explorers, and the friendly interest of several European governments. The association at first undertook to open a route with stations from Zanzibar to Lake Tanganyika; but in 1877 Stanley drew attention to the Congo country, and was sent there by King Leopold, in the name of the association, and maintained for five years, with ample resources. Through several thousand treaties with native chiefs rights were acquired along the Congo, and posts were established on the river. The money for this work is understood to have come from Leopold's private resources, but it was carried

through all the early stages under international auspices. Indeed, as England had more capable men trained for such work than any other country, the chief officers were for a time English. Much was said of the civilizing work of the association, and of the opening for trade of all nations; and Bismarck, especially, gave it the great weight of his unqualified support. The validity of the territorial claims of the association became a matter of world-wide interest. The United States Senate endorsed them in 1884 and European publicists discussed the questions raised as to the rights and sovereignty of this state that was not a state but an association of shareholders. The claim to about one-eleventh of the territory of Africa, projected into the heart of the continent and containing, as was being proved, great resources for trade, raised a question new to African movements,—the question of boundaries. The association's territory marched with French claims on the north and Portuguese on the south, and with vaguely defined German and English interests in the interior. The necessity of delimiting territory in Africa called attention to the national interests involved and to possible international competition. Outside of Belgium enthusiasm for the International African Association began to wane. The other states began to turn their attention to the condition of their own fences, and Leopold was left, as he probably expected to be, to push his Congo enterprise in his own way.

Territorial claims
of the association.

LEOPOLD II.,
KING OF BELGIUM.



DR. HENRY BARTH,
THE AFRICAN
EXPLORER.
(Reproduced, by permis-
sion, from Harper's
Magazine, Copyright, 1886,
Harper & Brothers.)



¹ Belgium's population steadily increases. It averaged, in 1898, 586.4 to the square mile.

In 1884-85 the Berlin Conference did for the African question, as it then presented itself, what the Berlin Congress six years earlier had done for the Eastern question. Stanley and the British government had hoped that the Congo country would be ultimately organized under a British protectorate, and with that in view made an agreement with Portugal in 1884 which seemed to the other interested powers to convey a menace to their present or prospective interests, and this was one of the factors that brought about the holding of the conference. The first question settled was that of sovereignty in the association's territory. Recognition was accorded to the Congo Independent State, under the personal headship of the King of Belgium, but without any organic connection with Belgium. King Leopold promptly assumed authority and has since administered the Free State, in which by 1890, Belgian officers had entirely replaced the officials of other nationalities who had served the International African Association. The new state was neutralized by the conference. The king has been liberally assisted in the development of the Congo by the Belgian chambers and has bequeathed the Free State by will to Belgium. The adhesion of France to the decrees of the conference was only secured by recognizing her title to the territory known as the French Congo and the Upper Ubangi, that is the northwestern portion of the Congo basin; and also by conceding to France a right of pre-emption should the Congo State ever be transferred from Belgium to another power. Numerous treaties, negotiated between 1884 and 1894 with Germany, Great Britain, France, Portugal, and the Netherlands, have established the boundaries of the Congo State with some degree of clearness. It comprises something over 900,000 square miles of equatorial Africa, with an estimated population of about thirty million natives, chiefly of Bantu stock.

The settlement of the boundaries and status of the Congo Independent State was accompanied by other arrangements which determined in a general way the relations of the European powers in Africa, so that later treaties to which France, Germany, Great Britain and Italy have been parties have really supplemented the work done at Berlin fifteen years ago. A brief review of the position of the nations in Africa resulting from these adjustments will perhaps be helpful in studying the everchanging African map.

The principal Portuguese possessions in Africa are the great territory of Angola on the west coast, and Portuguese East Africa on the east coast. The former touches the Congo State on the north and northeast, Rhodesia (British) on the east, and German Southwest Africa on the south; and the latter, extending up the eastern coast from Natal to German East Africa, is bounded by the Transvaal, Rhodesia, and British Central Africa. There are in addition several islands and a small tract in Guinea. Portuguese Africa is principally managed by a chartered company. The chief questions affecting Portuguese territory have arisen in connection with Great Britain,⁹ and the historical friendship of the two countries

The Berlin Conference, 1884-85.

The Congo Independent State.



A LADY OF
TIMBUCTOO.

(From "Timbuctoo the Mysterious," by Félix Dubois. Longmans, Green & Co.)

The new African map.

Portugal.

⁹ For example, the dispute over the possession of Delagoa Bay on the east coast.

Spain.

keeps such questions out of the range of serious international complications. Portugal's neighbor, Spain, has in her more brilliant past shown some interest in northwestern Africa, but in her general decadence as a world power retains nothing but the Canary Islands, the little island of Fernando Po, where English interests prevail, and an insignificant protectorate at Rio d'Ouro.

The Dutch.

The Dutch were among the earlier Europeans to establish stations in Africa for purposes of trade. At the beginning of the seventeenth century they had a chain of forts on the Gold Coast of Guinea and they were for a long time actively engaged in the slave trade. When that declined they relaxed their hold, and in 1872 their last post in this region was ceded to England in return for the cession of certain English rights in Sumatra. St. Helena was originally held by the Dutch, but was taken by the English in 1655, and this possession was finally confirmed in 1673. The island of Mauritius was also held by the Dutch from 1598 until 1710,

when it was given up and afterward taken by France, to pass later to England. The Dutch settlement at Cape Town was made in the middle of the seventeenth century, as a station on the way to the great Dutch possessions in the East Indies. It was never a prosperous colony. It was hampered by the tyrannical administration

ROCK INSCRIPTIONS

BY BUSHMEN IN

SOUTH AFRICA.

(From "Seven Years in South Africa," by Dr. Emil Houb. Published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)



British intervention.

characteristic of the earlier history of the great Dutch commercial companies. Enterprise and freedom of action were lacking, and negro slavery was introduced on account of the scarcity of free labor. An unsuccessful English attack was made upon the colony in 1778, during the war between England and Holland, and the last great Bantu invasion, following this, involved the colony in a struggle which it was ill-prepared to wage. In 1795 the Stadholder, Prince of Orange, driven out of Holland, by the French, then crusading for republics, took refuge in England and authorized Great Britain to take possession of Cape Colony in the name of the Netherlands States General. Great Britain had long had a watchful eye on the cape and now took the colony, holding it for eight years in trust, after which for three years the Batavian Republic governed it in a more liberal way than had marked the previous Dutch rule by the company. But in 1806 the colony was taken by a strong British expedition, and with what is now British Guiana was ceded to Great Britain in the general settlement of 1814, for six million pounds. The same settlement enabled Holland to retrieve her East Indian losses, and there her real interests lay. Thus the Dutch flag ceased to fly over any part of Africa, but this reference to earlier Dutch Africa has a place here properly because of the relation of the Dutch colonial contingent to recent South African history. Great Britain, already established on the west coast, thus became a power in South Africa, and, since the Berlin conference, has pushed northward into the interior by successive explorations and occupations, until, with Bechuanaland, Rhodesia, and British Central Africa, its territories extend in a broad belt through the heart of tropical and sub-tropical Africa to Nyassa and Tanganyika. Here German East Africa intervenes between the British southern block and British East Africa. Before these

Dutch South Africa
finally ceded to
Great Britain.

Great Britain.

advances were made, the limits of Cape Colony had been much extended and Natal had been acquired, the latter in 1843. English connection of West Africa began in the middle of the sixteenth century, when trade with the Guinea countries in slaves, gold, and ivory became attractive. Later England became even more earnest in the suppression of the slave trade. By various treaties with the other European nations which were interested in this part of the continent, the latest being that with France in 1898 and the Anglo-German agreement of 1899, the British status in this part of the continent has been established with some degree of definiteness.

The French movement southward from Algeria into the Sahara and the Sudan has been already mentioned. The French sphere in West Africa is the northern part of the Congo watershed. The ambitious attempt to anticipate or supplant England in the eastern Sudan proved a failure, and the French government found it necessary to disown it. The French African possessions have not thus far proved successful either from an economic or an administrative standpoint and thus far France seems to be repeating in Africa her older history of ambitious but futile colonial enterprise.

The German African possessions are of recent origin. In the old Brandenburg days there was some attempt at trade with the African west coast, but Brandenburg and later Prussia, had another task than the colonization of Africa. From the middle of the century German missionaries were active in Damara and Namaqua lands, thus making the beginnings of German Southwest Africa, but here and elsewhere, following

the conservative Bismarckian colonial policy, Germany made haste slowly. It only took control in southwest Africa when its citizens demanded protection and Great Britain refused, after repeated invitations, to assume jurisdiction. On the other hand in 1884, Dr. Nachtigal, the eminent German explorer, took summary possession of Togoland, adjoining the British Gold Coast Colony on the east, and of the Cameroons, which are similarly placed with reference to British Nigeria, lying between that territory and the French Congo region. In the same year of activity Germany began those operations about Kilima-njaro and the Victoria Nyanza which resulted in the organization of German East Africa. Great Britain was hampered in this district

by a treaty with France which pledged non-interference with the sultanate of Zanzibar. Therefore, while Great Britain negotiated, Germany, not



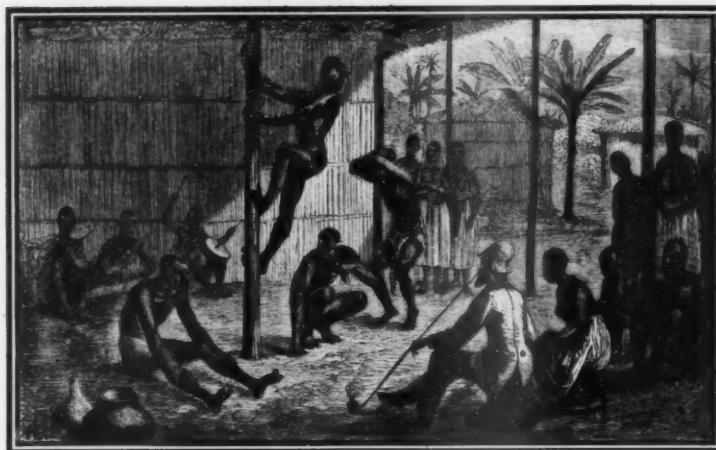
AFRICAN TYPE—
IBAKA, KING OF
BOLODO, ON THE
CONGO.

Germany's posses-
sions in Africa.



AFRICAN TYPE—
KING MUNZA IN
FULL DRESS,
CENTRAL AFRICA.

THE GORILLA
DANCE, IN THE
FRENCH CONGO.



hitherto considered in connection with this part of Africa, stepped in and acted. Zanzibar became a British protectorate in 1891, but meanwhile German East Africa had been established and recognized in the Anglo-German agreement of 1890. German operations in Africa have been characterized by the thorough, scientific method that has marked each step of Germany's advance as a world power. I cannot do better than quote an admirable statement on this point by Sir H. H. Johnston. It is applicable elsewhere as well as to Africa:

"It will be seen, I fancy, when history takes a review of the foundation of these African states, that the unmixed Teuton—Dutchman or German—is on first contact with subject races apt to be harsh and even brutal, but that he is no fool and wins the respect of the negro or the Asiatic, who admires brute force; while his own good nature in time induces a softening of manners when the native has ceased to rebel and begun to cringe. There is this that is wholesome and hopeful about the Germans: they are quick to realize their own defects, and equally quick to amend them. As in commerce, so in government, they observe and master the best principles. The politician would be very shortsighted who underrated the greatness of the German character, or reckoned on the evanescence of German dominion in strange lands."³

Italy.

One other European state, Italy, has wished to become an African power. It holds Eritrea on the Red sea and Italian Somaliland on the Indian ocean. These colonies adjoin Abyssinia and the British spheres of influence, and it is in great measure to the friendship of Great Britain that Italy owes its continuance in this region, where it has hardly been able to make good its position against the hatred of Abyssinia.

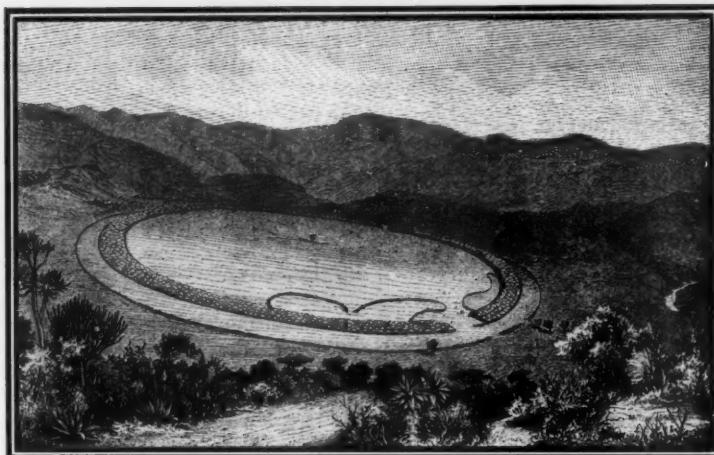
CHAPTER XXII.

FROM THE CAPE TO CAIRO.

Africa controlled by Teutonic nations.

There is little room for doubt, in the present aspect of affairs, that the future of Africa lies in the hands of the two great Teutonic nations that have always shown the most complete mastery of successful principles of politics in their dealing with alien races. Italy and Portugal are dependent for the prosperity and security of their colonies upon the friendship of these more powerful neighbors; and should they give up their African possessions Germany and Great Britain are morally certain to become their legatees, unless a radical change takes place in international relations. France is nominally a heavy owner of African real estate and has

³ "Colonization of Africa," p. 258.



A ZULU TOWN,
SOUTH AFRICA.
(From "Africa, Exploration
and Adventure," by
Charles H. Jones.)

large plans for its development, among others the project of a railway from Algeria across the desert to some point in French western Africa. But French management of such possessions lacks the solid, practical common sense that enables the great rivals of France to hold colonies once acquired, in spite of manifold mistakes and gross lack of tact in dealing with the natives. French ambition soars too high and wide. In Egypt, France held equal ground with England until the Arabi rebellion, when the field was left to the Briton, with the known result. France has repented in the years that have followed and has sought to recover its hold in the Nile valley, but its one European ally, Russia, has no encouragement to give to this scheme, and without support France can do nothing. An attempt was made by the expedition of Major Marchand to establish French control in the Egyptian Sudan. Pushing across the Bahr el Ghazal with an insignificant expeditionary force, he occupied the village of Fashoda on the Upper Nile, and was there in peril of destruction by the dervishes when he was relieved by that very British success it had

been his object to forestall. It became necessary for the French government to disclaim responsibility and order Marchand to retire by the shortest route to French Somaliland. He returned to France to be made for a brief space a French popular hero; but French popular heroes are easily made, and the great international fact that the Marchand expedition had been an ignominious failure remained unchanged.

This struggle for the Egyptian Sudan is of the utmost importance in the history of Africa. The traveler up the Nile at a distance of nearly six hundred miles above Cairo comes to the First Cataract and the village and frontier post of Assouan. Here

Weakness of
French
management.

MAJOR J. B.
MARCHAND.



Upper Egypt ends. Southward in great terraces stretches the tropical expanse of Nubia and the Egyptian Sudan, across which the Nile and its confluents bring down their paternal waters from the great lakes in the interior of equatorial Africa, giving life to the fertile valley in which

Mahdist risings.

civilization has left its records for thousands of years. From Assouan to Khartum, the chief town of Nubia, is sandy desert; but southward from Khartum stretches a fertile country of wide extent, inhabited by mixed Arab and negro races. From the year 1819, when Mehemet Ali conquered

the Sudan, it was ruled by the khedives until the revolt of the Mahdi in 1883. For countless centuries this country has been a menace to Egypt. The oppressive government of the khedives might for a time compel subjection, but it also stored up the seeds of rebellion among the untamed and fearless Sudanese. Fanatical religious leaders, known as Mahdis or Messiahs, have frequently appeared among these people, but in this year of outbreak there came one, Mohammed Ahmed, who united politics of a primitive sort with his religious leadership. The flame of rebellion spread like wildfire, and was fanned by the more secular genius of the lieutenant of the Mahdi, the Khalifah Abdallah, who succeeded to the leadership of the dervishes, as the Mahdi's followers are called, upon the latter's death in 1885.

It has long been recognized by European statesmen that control of Lower Egypt must have as its corollary control of the upper waters of the Nile. The restless tribes of the desert could not be allowed to hang like a threatening cloud over northeastern Africa, nor could the European power that was deeply interested in the security and neutrality of Egypt as a gateway of the East allow any other power to cross Africa and control the upper courses of its most important river. Great Britain's heavy stake in Egypt compelled the suppression of the nationalist rebellion of Arabi and the securing of adequate guarantees for future sane and responsible government. The same insistent conditions compelled the British government, when the Egyptian rebellion had been broken at Tel el Kebir, to undertake a continuance of its police service against the Mahdi in the Sudan. A force of eleven thousand men, despatched to Khartum under Hicks Pasha was annihilated, and the rebellion grew with victory. An Egyptian force met the same fate. Then it was decided to abandon the Sudan, and the mission of extricating the troops garrisoning Sudanese posts was entrusted to that chivalrous crusader of civilization,

Charles George Gordon, who had been governor-general of the Sudan from 1874 to 1879, knew the people, and had done a great work for progress and good government. Armed with a new commission

LADY OF HIGH RANK
IN OLD CALABAR,
WEST AFRICA.
(From "The Grove Band,"
by Joseph H. Reading.)



Great Britain's
attempt at regula-
tion.

ON THE WAR-PATH
IN MASAI LAND,
EAST AFRICA.
(From "Through Masai
Land," by Joseph Thomson.
Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)

European statesmen that control of Lower Egypt must have as its corollary control of the upper waters of the Nile. The restless tribes of the desert could not be allowed to hang like a threatening cloud over northeastern Africa, nor could the European power that was deeply interested in the security and neutrality of Egypt as a gateway of the East allow any other power to cross Africa and control the upper courses of its most important river. Great Britain's heavy stake in Egypt compelled the suppression of the nationalist rebellion of Arabi and the securing of adequate guarantees for future sane and responsible government. The same insistent conditions compelled the British government, when the Egyptian rebellion had been broken at Tel el Kebir, to undertake a continuance of its police service against the Mahdi in the Sudan. A force of eleven thousand men, despatched to Khartum under Hicks Pasha was annihilated, and the rebellion grew with victory. An Egyptian force met the same fate. Then it was decided to abandon the Sudan, and the mission of extricating the troops garrisoning Sudanese posts was entrusted to that chivalrous crusader of civilization, Charles George Gordon, who had been governor-general of the Sudan from 1874 to 1879, knew the people, and had done a great work for progress and good government. Armed with a new commission



from the Egyptian government as governor-general of the Sudan, Gordon arrived in Khartum on the 18th of February, 1884. He speedily realized that to remain there with the force at his command would surely result in his being cut off from Egypt, but he had a duty to do and he faced it without hesitation. The English government, then directed by Mr. Gladstone, acted slowly on the information sent from Khartum, and it was not until summer that active military preparations were made for the relief of Khartum. It was late in the year when the expedition started by the Nile route, under the command of Lord Wolseley, with orders to rescue Gordon and his associates, and retire. The story of Gordon's martyrdom and of the gallant but useless campaign for his rescue is a familiar one. It is one of the saddest and most dramatic passages in recent history. With heavy loss the expedition fought its way to Khartum, arriving on the 28th of January, 1885, only to find that the city had been taken by the Mahdi and that Gordon was dead. With Russian activity giving anxiety on the borders of India, England did not care to address itself to the serious military problem in the Sudan, and its forces retired, with nothing but bad news to show for the great sacrifice of brave lives.

Not until 1894 was the attempt to conquer and reorganize the Sudan renewed. By that time the relations between Great Britain and Egypt had been adjusted upon a working basis, and the important Anglo-German agreement of 1890 had established an understanding between the two most important African powers, an understanding which included a recognition of the equatorial provinces of Egypt within the British sphere. The followers of the Mahdi under his successor, the Khalifah Abdallah, had strengthened themselves, but on the other hand the reorganization of the Egyptian army under the sirdar, Sir Herbert Kitchener, had wonderfully increased its efficiency, as the campaigns of 1894 to 1898 abundantly proved. By steady and systematic advance the khalifah was hemmed in, and finally at Omdurman on the 2nd of September, 1898, the final act in the tragedy of which Gordon's martyrdom had been the opening was played. The successful check put upon the French project at Fashoda, ratified in the supplementary treaty of 1899 between France and Great Britain, secured from another rival recognition of the latter's sphere from Darfur and the Bahr el Ghazal eastward. Thus is brought nearer the realization of the Cape to Cairo route, under British guardianship through the length of Africa, which has been the dream of earnest explorers and organizers like Sir Harry Johnston and of ambitious empire builders like Cecil Rhodes.

If the key to the East African situation in the north is the control of the Egyptian Sudan, in the south it is the possession or control of the habitable regions of South Africa. Here are situated the largest areas of African territory fitted for the habitation of white men that were not already preempted when they became known to Europeans. By whom are they possessed? By Germany and Great Britain. All of South Africa that is adapted to white colonization is possessed by these two powers, and it is a country of great strategic value and of large resources. By far the greater portion is British, but the British problem here is a

Gordon's death at Khartum.



A SUDAN NEGRO.
(From "Actual Africa,"
by Frank Vincent.
Copyright, 1895, by
D. Appleton & Co.)

Importance of South Africa.

The British in
South Africa.

difficult one, because of a considerable Dutch creole population, mixed to some extent with French Huguenot blood. Here is ample reason for hatred of English control. It would be rash to attempt a forecast of the immediate effect of the South African war upon the British colonies in that part of the world. It is safer to predict the ultimate result. The war has produced a remarkable outburst of sympathetic loyalty from the great self-governing colonies of the British empire, and has in so much strengthened England's hands. The fruitless mission of the Boer commissioners and of Mr. Kruger in Europe has shown that the European powers are not prepared to bring about any great international dissension for a people who are working for an essentially selfish end. The state that would today hold especial privileges and control valuable parts of the earth's surface must offer some broader plea than that of a mere selfish independence, and that is all that the Boer states of South Africa have to say for themselves. The ultimate victory of Great Britain is sure, and in it lies the best hope of progress for South Africa.

Strength of British
and German
positions.

It is, then, because of the strategic value of the territories more or less completely controlled by them; because their co-operation or agreement is necessary for the completion of the greatest projects for African development; and because of their superior colonial system, and their racial persistence in enterprises once undertaken, that I regard Great Britain and Germany as the dominating forces in Africa today,—a position they are not likely to lose unless some startling revolution in international relations takes place in Europe. And the advancement of civilization in the Dark Continent cannot be placed in more efficient hands.

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE ENTRANCE OF THE NEW WORLD.

Opening of new
continents.

Columbus and his successors, sailing westward across the Sea of Darkness in search of the Indies, found their way barred by a great continental mass, long mistaken for the object of their quest. Upon the twin continents thus discovered, Spanish, French, and English conquerors and colonizers brought into effective existence a new world. The English statesman, Canning, centuries later, boasted that by his encouragement of the United States in the promulgation of the Monroe doctrine he had "brought into existence the New World to redress the balance of the Old." More properly might the hardy colonizers of earlier date have made the same proud boast, but like most pioneer creators of new historic epochs, few of them could foresee the results of their work. The Spaniards were disappointed at not finding the fabled wealth of the Indies, and they and their successors for two centuries were quite as much interested in discovering gateways to the East through the new lands as in making those lands themselves fruitful. Especially after the wonderful voyages of Magellan and Drake had rectified geographical errors, was there an ardent desire to shorten the long route which those great navigators had followed so painfully. But gradually, as American colonization proceeded and the resources of the new countries became apparent, interest in the westward route to the Indies gave place to greater matters. Upon every sea and on many coasts was heard the thunder of cannon in the great battle for supremacy between Catholic Spain and Protestant England. Virginia was settled in defiance of Spain, and then and there was born, with that wretched little settlement on the James, a new state that was to finally destroy the last remnant of Spanish power in the western hemisphere, where Spain had led the way, and in the farther East; a state that was to enter the twentieth century as the recognized first power of the world in all the true elements of national strength. Nothing greater than this stupendous achievement is recorded.

The struggle for
supremacy.

In the sixteenth century Spain, freed from Moorish domination, with Spain as a world powerful alliances and great possessions that were pouring gold into its treasury, seemed to be the great world power,¹ and threatened to extend in Europe, in America, and in the Orient that merciless religio-political tyranny which had become the policy of its Catholic monarchy. In America it held the chief islands of the Caribbean, western North America, Mexico and Central America, and all of South America except Portuguese Brazil. Had its policy been broad and its methods sound it had before it an unrivaled opportunity for the development of national greatness, and its people were capable of much under right leadership. But its sovereigns chose a narrow and reactionary tyranny, destroyed the liberty and individuality of their own people, and by their arrogant course challenged the representatives of a freer life everywhere to aggressive resistance. The result was the revolt of the Netherlands which freed the Dutch from Spanish control; and the long intermittent struggle which brought insular England into life as a world power, crippled Spain, and checked its advance in America. Furthermore, as time went on, discontent grew among the restless half-Spanish people of the Latin American states, until they threw off an insufferable bondage and attempted, blunderingly and recklessly, but for themselves, an independent existence. To them, having no heritage of popular institutions, the Anglo-Saxon republic at the north was a shining example which they tried to follow, but always with that tendency to autocracy and factional dissension that is at all times characteristic of Latin attempts at democracy, whether made by Spaniard, Frenchman, or Italian. When European reactionaries, attracted by the opportunities which the divided condition of Latin America seemed to offer, gave indications of intent to profit thereby, the northern republic in 1823 reached out its strong young hand and said "thus far and no farther." The Monroe doctrine has not and never had any standing in international law. It was merely a declaration of a national American policy, but as such it was of vital significance in the world's history. It marked the completion of the independence of America from European control, with freedom for future development. It declared that in the western hemisphere there should be full opportunity for the growth of the new nationality, resting on the nation and not on the private ambitions of an individual or a privileged class; that the institution of "government of the people, by the people, and for the people" was not to be allowed to perish from the earth at the behest of Old World reactionaries. It did not represent a new fact; it gave definite statement to things accomplished.

One of the things which the Monroe doctrine emphatically pointed out to the world was the full-armed entrance of a new and unspoiled Anglo-Saxon power into the arena of the world's activities. It was this, rather than any possible sanction of law or force that might lie behind it, which gave and still gives its importance in the eyes of Europe to this dictum of a president of the United States. When England in its

The Spanish power checked.



MAP, SHOWING IN BLACK WHAT SPAIN OWNED IN NORTH AND SOUTH AMERICA IN 1800.

American independence declared in the Monroe doctrine.

The real force of the Monroe doctrine.

¹ Sir Robert Giffen, than whom there is no more eminent statistician, has recently ranked the world powers in the following order: The United States, Great Britain, Russia, Germany; with France a doubtful fifth. This estimate has reference to individual and national resources, as well as to population.

struggle with Spain endeavored to offset the Spanish-American power by making an establishment in North America, it opened the long and wonderful chapter of English colonial development. Here the narrow island state learned its most difficult lessons in the elementary principles of national expansion; creating through its costly mistakes a new nation which continued in a wider field the development of the old English polity, and fulfilled the noble mission of the Anglo-Saxon race in the New World better than it was in the power of England itself to fulfil it, under the social and political conditions then existing in the kingdom.

England against France.

In the national struggles which made North America Anglo-Saxon, England had not only to confine Spain within the regions of its original conquests; it had also to contend with France when that country had reached the pinnacle of its greatness and had succeeded Spain as the great Catholic power of Europe. This was a chapter in another great historic struggle between rival systems of society and government. France, like Spain, met its real defeat in the New World.

HOUSES OF CONGRESS, SANTIAGO, CHILE.



The Anglo-Saxon separation and its meaning.

A dream of empire.

Its courtier-ministers played with airy grace a gambler's game, with world empire for the stake, and lost. Henceforth the Anglo-Saxon dominated the New World. This made possible the revolt of a part of the American branch of the Anglo-Saxon family, who were building a state upon the principles native to the race, against the English branch which was bound too much by acquired methods and habits of the Old World. The result justified the act; but England was not expelled from the American continent, nor was its power broken. The American Revolution and the succeeding contentions were in the nature of family discussions over vital principles; they were not wars of hostile races or nations or religions. England retained on this side of the Atlantic what became one of its best and strongest colonies, existing in immediate proximity to the vigorous new state that so soon outgrew its parent. Thus practical territorial unity, a community of interests and of mission, and race relationship, unite to bring Great Britain and the United States side by side at critical moments when the ideas and interests for which both stand are threatened from without. These plain and vital forces have been slow in working out their results because of old antagonisms and the infiltration of other strains than the English among the people of the United States; but they are none the less real and none the less sure of ultimate vindication. When Lord Rosebery drew that eloquent word picture the other day at Glasgow University of what the history of the British empire might have been had Pitt and Burke and Fox controlled English policy in those years that produced the American Revolution, instead of George III., Lord North, and Townsend, he was indulging a lively imagination, but he was pointing a valuable moral. It is not at all inconceivable that, had England recognized the just demands of the colonies and their loyalty to the best traditions of their race, the seat of British empire might now be found in the great continent it would have

held, with the British Isles an outpost on the east. It is not so clear that the work of the Anglo-Saxon for free institutions would have been so well done as it has been through the sharp rivalry of the United States and Great Britain, nor that the growth of the present United States would have been so splendid had it been subject to the jealousy and hostility of the European nations, instead of occupying an independent position which allowed it to grow and expand with little hostile interference. Nevertheless, this recent utterance of a British statesman shows how these two related peoples have been pursuing by different paths a common destiny which must bring them into closer sympathy as time goes on.

The New World, then, opens the twentieth century practically free from all trammels of the Old, since Great Britain stands substantially for the ideals of today. The dominating influence is Anglo-Saxon, but south of the United States is a body of Latin-American states, endowed with restless pride and independence, jealous of each other and learning slowly the lessons of self-control and mutual respect that are necessary to successful popular government. Mexico, after many vicissitudes, has established under President Diaz a government that is at once liberal, wise, and strong; but, like the government of all these Latin-American states, it depends too much upon one strong hand. What factional strife will do when that strong hand is removed no one who has watched the development of Latin-American politics would care to prophesy. The little Central American republics are being drawn into the drag net of world policies by the strategic position they occupy between the two great oceans. Their security and neutralization is likely to be the care of the world powers if they conduct themselves discreetly. In South America, the Argentine Republic, Brazil, long the only empire of the New World, now a republic, and Chile have enjoyed much prosperity, comparative stability of government, and are the chief factors in distinctly South American affairs.

South America, with its abundant resources and its comparative weakness politically, is a temptation to European powers, but the firm stand of the United States upon the principles of the Monroe doctrine is a constant warning to non-interference in American affairs. At the present time there is but one power that occupies a relation toward America that is a possible source of trouble. The commercial and financial interests of Germany in Mexico, Central and South America are large and steadily increasing. If in any of the disturbances peculiar to South American republics circumstances should arise which call for German intervention, the present German emperor might conceivably carry interference farther than the United States would regard as warranted. Such an event is, fortunately, not a probability, and every dictate of prudence and wise statesmanship, as well as every tradition of the two nations, would call for a peaceful and fair adjustment of differences.

German interests in South America.

CHAPTER XXIV.

GROWTH OF THE FOREIGN POLICY OF THE UNITED STATES.

During the years of the century just closed, while Great Britain has been governing India and absorbing and organizing territories on every continent; while France has been reaching out for dominion in Asia and Africa; while Germany has been realizing itself and lately pushing its trade interests throughout the world; and while Russia has been quietly gathering central and eastern Asia into its firm and unrelenting grasp,—the United States, born at Jamestown, Plymouth, and Boston in protest against tyranny, foreign or native, has grown rapidly into the stature of a mature nation, a little awkward from its rapid growth, a little brusque and over-sensitive, but strong with the eager, passionate strength of

Isolation and early growth of the United States.

youth, and full of youthful ideals and impulses. Under the conditions of navigation and transportation prevailing in the early stages of its national history it was comparatively detached from the great world of affairs in which the European nations were involved. It simply said to them, "Hands off," and went its own way. This remoteness and the preoccupation of Europe during much of the century secured for the young nation that comparative isolation which it desired and needed. It was thus enabled to attain its growth without being warped and twisted by influences alien to its true national character.

Foreign policy of the United States.

Yet there was never lacking to the United States a consistent policy with reference to the world outside. The common supposition that this

country has been without a foreign policy has been due to the fact that the people have not in years past seen much beyond their domestic affairs; they have not followed until lately the working of the state department, which has pursued in spite of many vagaries and a certain rough and ready diplomacy, a consistent traditional course, with which changes of party have had little to do. During the first three administrations,



STATUE OF THE LIBERATOR BOLÍVAR, IN LIMA, PERU.

when the difficult problems of organization were being worked out, the prudent wisdom of Washington and of Adams sought by every compromise short of absolute national humiliation to avoid the conflicts in which England and France were eager to involve the country, and for which it was utterly unprepared. This period of helpless dependence upon European conditions, a period natural to a young, new nation, was brought to a close by the war of 1812, which, although it was a military failure and a political boomerang, offered just enough of success to give confidence to the new generation then taking hold of affairs, and served notice on

American sphere of influence.

Europe that the United States was no longer in leading-strings, but was a self-respecting nation with rights which it proposed to defend while

still adhering to the old policy of keeping free from European entanglements. The administration of President Monroe took a further step in the direction of broader relations. Although the phrase "sphere of influence" was not used and would not in its present sense be wholly applicable, yet its main idea was embodied in the Monroe doctrine, which assumed a right on the part of the United States to a measure of influence in safeguarding the interests of the western hemisphere, the Spanish part of which had just thrown off its Old World allegiance. The general position thus taken was specifically reinforced by the administra-

The United States and Cuba.

tion's attitude in regard to Cuba. The elaborate instructions of John Quincy Adams, then secretary of state, to the minister of the United States to Spain, in relation to that island, were for seventy-five years the text of the United States policy, until the McKinley administration carried out their precepts. Briefly stated, this doctrine was that the United States could allow no other foreign power to dispossess Spain. If the time should come when Spain must go out and another power must go into Cuba, that power must be the United States, as the nation most immediately interested. This is interesting as a statement of a doctrine not so fully recognized at that time as it is today. Furthermore, the United States would hold Spain strictly responsible for good government in the island. Spain certainly could not complain in 1898 of lack of

notice, since this warning had been plainly repeated for seventy-five years.

For half a century the gigantic internal struggle to which slavery gave rise somewhat obscured the diplomacy of the nation, but it is interesting to follow through the treaties and diplomatic correspondence of this whole stirring period the scarcely varying thread of foreign policy, developed along the line laid down in the three decades preceding. This policy might almost be summarized in the homely phrase, "Live and let live;" but there is to be found in none of these documents by the great Americans—Adams, Jackson, Clay, Webster, Marcy, Seward, Blaine, Olney, Hay, who are the real makers of the national policy—any of that weak indifference to the world's affairs, that narrow idea that America is a thing apart, which is found in some of the emasculated renderings of these doctrines that are frequently given to us today. For the most part we find in them the declarations of a virile statesmanship, holding as the primary need of the nation maturity of strength and accumulation of resources, but recognizing its relation to a larger world than that bounded by the American horizon, a world in which it was to be prepared to bear its part. By this is not meant that aggressive bumptiousness which is sometimes held to be the correct thing in national deportment, but a self-centered strength that is prepared to act for the national interest in all emergencies, and to extend the best influence of the people and their institutions wherever just opportunity offers. These sound American principles are as far from rampant imperialism, which is mere ambition of size, as they are from that hesitant spirit and that literal adherence to verbal constitutionalism which passes under the catch phrase "anti-imperialism." The world sweeps on in spite of written charters, and every constitution that is to survive must be sufficiently elastic to meet changing conditions without losing its fundamental spirit and principles. To demand freedom of opportunity for the development of American nationality, in either of the continents, and then to claim for the developed nation the right to play its full part in the world as its wisdom and its sense of justice may dictate, is a rational policy, applying to nations the same principles already applied under the United States system to individuals.

While this foreign policy has been unfolding, the nation has had unparalleled growth in territory and population. Other nations have secured large acquisitions of territory in Africa or Asia or distant islands; Russia has consolidated an enormous area of Europe and Asia, but the

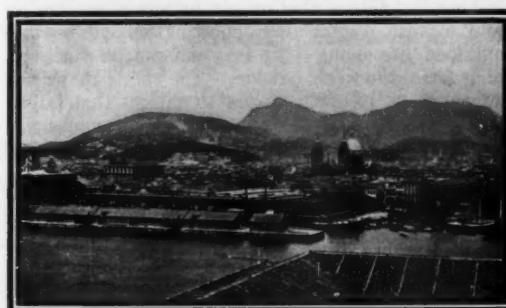
Fifty years of internal struggle.

A true American policy.

Territorial growth.

process of colonization of an ignorant and inert people but little removed from serfdom goes on slowly, and there are many Asiatic peoples to be assimilated. On the other hand, the United States has occupied a noble territory, stretching between the

RIO DE JANEIRO—DOCKS AND ARSENAL.



two great oceans and suggesting that it is the national destiny to be a sea-power of the first rank; a territory watered and bound together by mighty river systems, and containing all the resources necessary to sustain a numerous people. This is peopled not by aliens but by true colonists, of kindred races, capable for the most part of assimilating American political and social ideas. The negro is the only large and important alien element. This territory has been acquired from European or other American states. The title to it is no

The westward movement.

better and no worse than that of any civilized state that has preempted land inhabited only by savages or barbarians; but it is a title nowhere questioned at the present time. The nation that faced a world of but scant friendliness in 1783 looked out upon the Atlantic that was its friend and purveyor, and backward upon pathless forests and forbidding lands of unknown extent. Gradually its pioneers pushed westward and found the country good. Slowly the essential unity of this land dawned upon the minds of the abler men, as the significance of its great river systems and the needs of the people became apparent; and with some straining of the constitution what had to be was done. Successive annexations which nature had marked for such a destiny. The westward movement brought new world relations. As the activity of commerce and the center of civilization had once moved from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic, it now began to show signs of including the Pacific in its widening circle, and on the Pacific the United States occupied, by virtue of its westward expansion, a privileged position. What the European nations were scrambling for by means of trans-Asian railway lines and Asiatic annexations the United States possessed by unquestioned right—a commanding position on the Pacific ocean. But today there has become necessary for nations that are engaged in the world competition something more than a coast and harbors. These may even be a source of weakness if not supported by outposts from which coal and supplies can be



MEXICAN WATER CARRIER.

obtained and by the possession of which the great routes of travel can be kept open.

In 1897 there was some danger that the United States, because of its proverbial slowness in taking any action that might by any possibility be deemed aggressive, would lose its magnificent opportunities and be compelled to live a self-contained life doing little for, and except what was paid for, receiving nothing from, the world outside. The shock that drew it out of this hesitancy came, as it often comes to nations that fail to see the signs along their path, in the form of war. The movement of events brought to a culmination a long train of irritations in Cuban affairs, and in 1898 President McKinley took his stand on the old doctrine of John Quincy Adams, as reiterated by the United States government for seventy-five years. And as happens in nearly every important war the most important results of the conflict between Spain and the United States were but indirectly connected with the cause. Cuba was indeed freed from Spain, possibly to become at some later time a part of the United States; but that, important as it may be to the people directly concerned, is an insignificant fact in the world's history compared with the sudden awakening of the United States to a knowledge of its own power, of its relation to the great world, and of the needs and responsibilities entailed by that position. The annexation of Hawaii, about which the government had hesitated too long, was hastened and that most important crossroads station of the Pacific was secured beyond the possibility of other preemption. An accident of war flung the United States into the far East for better or for worse; and the acquisition of Porto Rico secured

The Spanish war.

Its important indirect results.

one point of vantage on the Caribbean, which the isthmian canal will make one of the most important of seas.

These recent events are sometimes spoken of in the United States as if they had opened a new foreign policy, whereas they are simply the outcome, brought about quickly through a somewhat violent shaking up, of the preparation of the whole history of the nation.

 REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Why has so little been known of Africa until modern times? 2. What has been gained by Portuguese explorations of the continent? 3. Why was there little incentive to go further? 4. What directed English attention to the region of the Niger? 5. Who inaugurated the period of scientific discovery? 6. Show how this work has developed. 7. Why has there been as yet little clashing of European interests in Africa? 8. How does the problem of the African aborigines differ from that encountered in America and Australia?

CHAPTER XX.

1. What circumstances led to the opening of the Congo country? 2. Why was Leopold left with the enterprise in his own hands? 3. How is the Congo State administered at present? 4. What is the relation of France to the Congo State? 5. Where are the Portuguese possessions in Africa? 6. How did the Dutch lose their settlement at Cape Town? 7. Where are the chief English possessions in Africa? 8. What has been the history of France in Africa? 9. What was the "conservative Bismarckian colonial policy"? 10. When was German East Africa established?

CHAPTER XXI.

1. What two nations are likely to have the future control of Africa? 2. How did France fail to secure a hold upon the Sudan? 3. What is the character of Africa south of Khartum? 4. What formidable native rebellions have taken place in this region? 5. What fatal results followed England's early attempts to conquer the Sudan? 6. Under what circumstances was success finally achieved? 7. Why is it probable that England and Germany will control Africa?

CHAPTER XXII.

1. Compare the position of the United States in 1609 and 1901. 2. How has the power of Spain steadily declined during this period? 3. What relation did the United States early assume towards affairs in the western hemisphere? 4. Through what great international struggles did England pass in the eighteenth century? 5. What elements of stability can be found in the governments south of the United States? 6. What possible difficulties for the United States exist in the relation of Germany to South America?

CHAPTER XXIII.

1. What enterprises have occupied the other great nations while the United States has been coming to its maturity? 2. What was the general policy of Washington and Adams? 3. What further step did Monroe take? 4. What has been the attitude of the United States for many years towards Cuba? 5. What sound foreign policy has the nation steadily pursued? 6. What important position does the United States occupy in relation to the Pacific ocean? 7. What far-reaching results came from the Spanish-American war?

CHAPTER XXIV.

1. What was the Buxton Expedition of 1841? 2. Under what circumstances did Leopold II. come into power? 3. What occasioned the dispute over Delagoa bay? 4. What was the Batavian Republic? 5. What famous poem by Kipling deals with the Sudanese rebellion? 6. Why did Zanzibar become a British protectorate?

Search Questions.

 XVI. AFRICA.

There is an extensive and rapidly increasing literature on Africa. A few interesting and valuable books are noted:

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TOPICAL ANALYSIS.

THE EXPLOITATION OF AFRICA.

CHAPTER XX.

Why Africa was so early and so little known.

Early Portuguese explorations.

Later African exploration.

The English on the Niger.

Barth and the scientific explorers.

Periods of African exploitation.

The new political problem.

Africa now a factor in international affairs.

The rivalry of peace.

People and climate.

The history and present status of Africa.

THE SCRAMBLE FOR AFRICA.

CHAPTER XXI.

Beginning of the fever for African colonization.

King Leopold and the International African Association.

Opening of the Congo country.

The new question of boundaries.

The Berlin Conference, 1884-85.

The Congo Independent State.

The French reservation.

Other adjustments.

The new African map.

Portugal and Spain.

The Dutch.

British intervention.

South Africa ceded to Great Britain.

Great Britain.

France.

Germany.

The Germans as colonizers.

Italy.

FROM THE CAPE TO CAIRO.

CHAPTER XXII.

Africa controlled by Teutonic nations.

French weakness.

Importance of the Egyptian Sudan.

Conditions in the Sudan.

Mahdist risings.

Great Britain's attempt at regulation.

Gordon's martyrdom.

Kitchener's successful campaigns.

Importance of South Africa.

The British in South Africa.

Strength of British and German positions.

THE ENTRANCE OF THE NEW WORLD.

CHAPTER XXIII.

The opening of new continents.

The struggle for supremacy.

Spain as a world power — its advance checked.

The Monroe doctrine a declaration of American independence.

Its real force.

England against France.

The Anglo-Saxon separation and its meaning.

Lord Rosebery's dream of empire.

Political condition of the world today.

German interests in South America.

GROWTH OF THE FOREIGN POLICY OF THE UNITED STATES.

CHAPTER XXIV.

Isolation and early growth of the United States.

The foreign policy of the United States.

The American sphere of influence.

The United States and Cuba.

Fifty years of internal struggle.

A true American policy.

Territorial growth.

The westward movement.

Importance of the Pacific.

Needs of the new situation.

The Spanish war.

Important indirect results.

A READING JOURNEY IN THE ORIENT

[The voyage from New York to Gibraltar, scenes in Tangier and Algiers, and the arrival at Alexandria were described in the October issue. In November, Alexandria, the trip to Upper Egypt, and scenes along the Nile were the subjects considered. In December, "Down the Nile to Cairo" was the topic. "Modern Palestine and Syria" were treated in January. The subject in February was "Glimpses of Asia Minor."]

Summary of Preceding Chapters.

VI. CONSTANTINOPLE.

BY EDWIN A. GROSVENOR.

(Department of Modern Governments and Their Administration, Amherst College.)

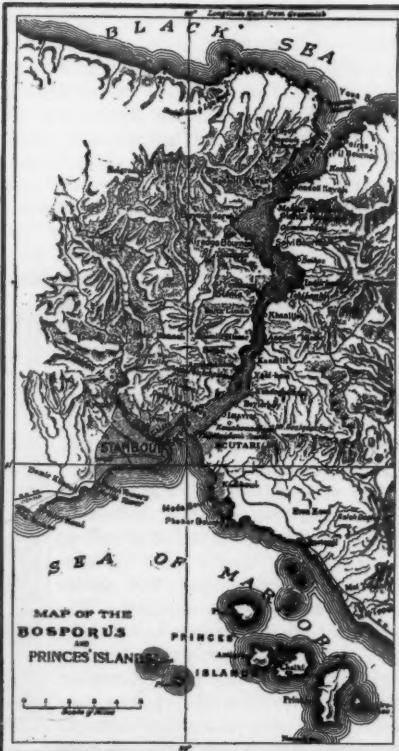


HE tourist who approaches Constantinople from northern or western Europe may exercise a choice between two main routes, each of which possesses advantages of its own. The quicker, more direct, and less interesting, is by rail. It traverses Servia, Bulgaria, and the great Thracian plain, and enters the city at its southwestern corner. This route combines speed and ease of travel, but nowhere does it afford more than unsatisfactory glimpses of Constantinople and of its situation.

Approaches to Constantinople.

The second route is by steamer from one of the harbor cities on the Black sea. It penetrates the Bosphorus between the Cyanean rocks of Jason and of the Argonauts at its northern mouth. Down that narrow strait it continues for more than fifteen miles between what in both natural and artificial beauty seem enchanted shores. At last the steamer stops opposite Seraglio point and seven-hilled Stamboul.

But the tourist who has been journeying in Egypt and Palestine must approach the city from the south, and has but one route to follow. Whether the last point he touches is the Piræus, the famous harbor of Athens, or the island port of Syra, or Smyrna on the inmost curve of her magnificent bay, it is all one. He is restricted to a single route, but a route almost unequalled in its splendor and unrivaled in its richness of association. His ship winds through the Ægean sea, the Isles of Greece dotting the horizon in every



MAP OF THE
BOSPORUS AND
PRINCES' ISLANDS.
(From Grosvenor's
Constantinople.)

SERAGLIO POINT.



Plain of Troy.

direction. As it enters the Dardanelles, on the right is Tenedos of which Virgil wrote, and on the left Lemnos where according to Greek mythology Vulcan fell. The narrow strip of sand to the north is the Thracian Chersonesus, over which Miltiades ruled as tyrant before he defeated the Persians at Marathon. On the south is the Plain of Troy with its funeral mounds and marshy rivers, and in the distance may be discovered the mountain peaks of many-fountained Ida. The steamer cuts its way between the coasts which Xerxes joined with his bridge of boats, and leaves on the right Lapsaki where the Athenian Themistocles dwelt in exile. As the channel widens, to the south is the Granicus river where Alexander won his first victory in Asia, and to the north is Goat river or *Ægos Potamos* where the Athenians in the Peloponnesian war met their final and fatal defeat. As the Dardanelles broadens into the Sea of Marmora, the ship keeps on toward the northeast. From its prow may be seen the rounded hill of Guebiseh, the ancient Lybissa, where Hannibal died and where tradition locates his unknown grave.

The direction slightly changes and veers toward the north. In front is revealed a maze of islands and of European and Asiatic hills. Gradually walls and domes and spires emerge and become distinct. The shores contract and form the southern mouth of the Bosphorus. On the right is the blunt promontory of Scutari, covered with mosques and houses, and with vast yellow barracks stretched out at its foot. On the left is Seraglio point, occupying the site of ancient Byzantium, marked by the colossal form of the cathedral of Sancta Sophia. Its transformation into the mosque of Aya Sophia is indicated by its four massive minarets.

THE COLUMN
OF CONSTANTINE
THE GREAT.

Sancta Sophia.





A TURKISH
CEMETERY.

Close to the venerable cathedral is the graceful, six-minareted mosque of Sultan Achmet. The voyage is not done until the steamer has rounded the point and pushed its way into what is the very heart of the city.

Seated upon two continents and two seas, Constantinople is most unlike Venice in situation and appearance, and yet it resembles Venice in its watery ways. The Bosphorus and the deep, narrow, crescent bay of the Golden Horn are its main thoroughfares. They serve rather to unite than to separate the opposite banks. In the municipal territory are included not only the main triangular peninsula, which projects between the Golden Horn and the Marmora and which is now called Stamboul, but both shores of the Bosphorus from the Marmora to the Black sea and the tiny archipelago of the Princes' Islands. As now used the word Constan-

tinople resembles Venice.

tinople is an elastic term, including the entire group of cities and villages on and immediately adjacent to the Thracian Bosphorus.

Even after the anchor has been cast and it is possible to go on shore, one does well before disembarking to linger for a few moments upon the deck. It is not merely that first impressions never come but once. The deck affords the most favorable vantage-ground for grasping the relations of the different city quarters in one comprehensive sweep. A fanciful resemblance is sometimes traced between the harbor here and upper New York bay between Brooklyn and Jersey City south of Manhattan. Here, however, the shores are less far apart, rise more abruptly

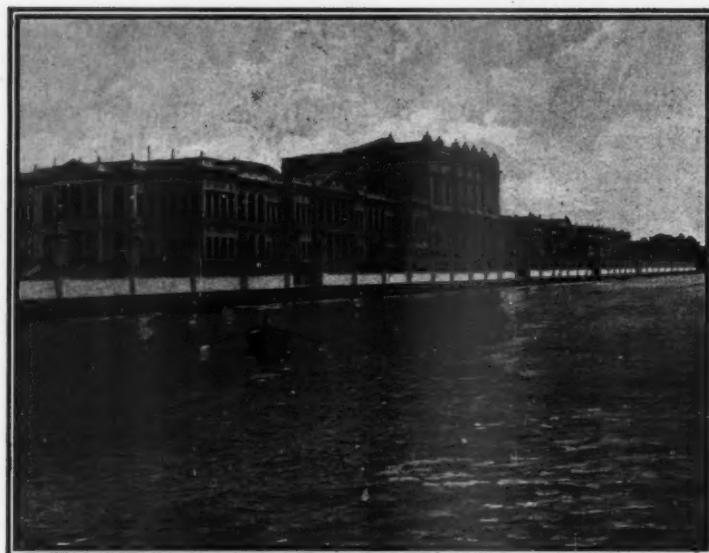
CONSTANTINE
THE GREAT.
(From *Grosvenor's Constantinople*.)



from the water and to a greater height, and are crowded by edifices and funereal forests that would be strangely out of keeping with the west.

On the hill to the north rises an enormous white, circular tower which

THE PALACE OF
DOLMA BAGHTCHEH.



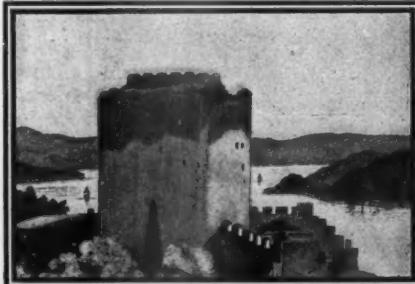
Galata Tower.

is crowned with a sort of clumsy, many-windowed cone, and dwarfs by its bulk the houses packed around its base. That is Galata Tower. It indicates the farthest limit of the medieval Genoese city of Galata, and now stands as a sort of sentinel in the very midst of the European population which has clustered about and beyond it. On the southwest rises another tower, more slender, more elegant, but no less lofty, surmounted by a great bulging top. That is the tower of the Seraskier or minister of war. It overlooks the esplanade of the parade ground and is a prominent architectural feature in cosmopolitan Stamboul. On the east, on the farther side of the Bosphorus, upon the summit of the hill, no matter what the season of the year, the eye is arrested by a prodigious unbroken mass of green. That is the most extensive, most densely populated Mussulman cemetery in the world. The hundreds and thousands of gigantic cypresses, which loom above the graves and grow close against one another, give it its somber and perennial hue. The creaking, melancholy forest seems itself a type of Asiatic Scutari. These three, the towers and the cemetery, are dominating landmarks. Their relative position kept in mind, one cannot lose oneself even in the crooked paths and streets which seem designed mainly to confuse.

One may well linger upon the deck to drink in the magic of the scene. Most fortunate is the tourist who is privileged to arrive in the harbor at daybreak, just as the rising sun is tinting the roofs and minarets of the capital. The good fortune of him who steams out of the harbor at sunset is hardly less. The features of the varied landscape are in one sense always the same, but its beauty is enhanced many fold at sunrise and sunset. Such spectacles cannot be described, no matter how often one has beheld them. One can only gaze upon

Mussulman
cemetery.

THE FORTRESS OF
ROUMELI HISSAR.
(From Grosvenor's
"Constantinople.")



them and remember them afterward, but one can not put full remembrance into adequate words. Moreover, all this vision of scenic loveliness is pervaded by classic and historic and romantic associations sufficient to cause a thrill in the heart of the most sluggish and phlegmatic.

Constantinople is one in that quadrilateral of cities which more than all others have shaped the world's faith, guided its thought, and determined its destinies. In early times it was surpassed or rivaled in importance only by Jerusalem, the fountain of religion, Athens, the mother of civilization, and Rome, the teacher of government and law. After those sister urban stars had set or been eclipsed, Constantinople shone with undimmed luster through the middle ages. For centuries it was the foremost city of the world, superior to every other in populousness, strength, and beauty, and in the high development of its social and public life. Through its troubled history of 2,600 years it has been inferior to none in dramatic interest.

Constantinople's ancient renown.

To the Moslem it is one of the four holy places, named with Mecca, Medina, and Jerusalem. From the Christian it demands peculiar reverence. It is the first city distinctively Christian erected by the first Christian emperor on the ruins of vanquished paganism. Here almost in

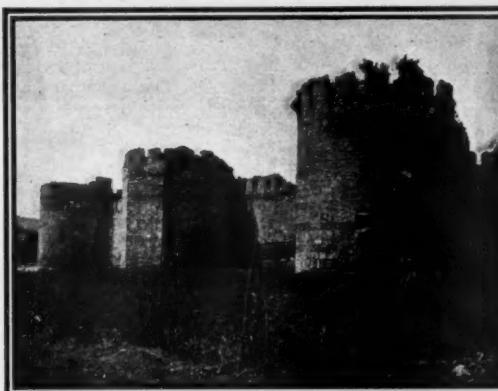
The first Christian city.

sight of the dome of Sancta Sophia the undivided church wrought out its theology by its ecumenical councils. Here preached that galaxy of pulpit orators, the Gregories and Chrysostoms, who in pulpit eloquence have been succeeded by few equals and no superiors. Here were developed the first principles of Byzantine art. Here was framed that marvelous Justinian code, which, however modified, has had so large a share in subsequent legislation. Here, in cloisters and libraries, were preserved the precious volumes and were trained the world-famous teachers to whom in their subsequent dispersion is commonly attributed that intellectual revival which we call the Renaissance. Here is still the chief seat of that venerable eastern communion, which alone of Christian churches uses no mere translation, crude and imperfect, of the gospels in its worship, but the vernacular of whose ritual is even now daily chanted in the very language in which the New Testament was inspired.

The foundation of Constantinople and its enthronement as the metropolis of the Roman empire was the achievement of Constantine the Great. It is the most convincing proof of his profound political sagacity. Says Dean Stanley, "No city chosen by the art of man has been so well chosen and so permanent."

Constantine the Great.

The site was strong, not only in immediate environment but by the easy defense of distant approaches. Food was abundant, cheap and easily procured. The most ancient epithet of the Bosphorus was the "fishy," because of the enormous shoals of fish which in spring and autumn packed its waters in periodic migration. The title golden, applied to the Golden Horn, was doubtless due to the wealth which the fishermen obtained from its waters. The Bosphorus had been the route of Jason in his voyage for



TOWERS IN THE LAND WALL.



THE PALACE OF
JUSTINIAN THE
GREAT.

the Golden Fleece. So now, north, east, south, and west have no other equal route for their commingling commerce.

The romantic element was strong in Constantine as in every leader who has affected human destiny. The seven hills of Rome were not then better defined nor are they more distinct today than in wonderful coincidence are the seven hills upon the Marmora and the Golden Horn. No omen could have been more propitious. While old Rome lay upon the Tiber, a new Rome beckoned here.

Baptismal day.

The 11th of May, 330, was the baptismal day of the new metropolis now given over to civilization and Christianity. The patriarch pronounced the blessing on the new name *Nova Roma*. Reverently the immense assembly bore the statue of Constantine to surmount the porphyry column in the forum. On the column were carved, both as prayer and dedication, the following words,
 "O Christ, Ruler and Master of the world, to Thee have I consecrated this obedient city and this scepter and power of Rome. Guard it. Deliver it from every harm."

Among all the monuments, associated with Constantinople, the column holds a mournful preëminence. Today it rises a spectral outline, destitute of beauty, gaunt and somber, but linked in imperishable intimacy with its first emperor. In broken letters on its mutilated base may still be read that heart-wrung prayer of Constantine. Through all the

THE MOSQUE
OF SULTAN
MOHAMMED II.



centuries since, the column has beheld, mute and passive witness, every experience which the years have brought to that Christ-consecrated city.

In the fifth century Theodosius II. erected a triple line of walls, buttressed by towers and further protected by an outer moat. This stupendous quadruple line reached along the landward side from the Golden Horn to the Marmora. The moat was seventy feet in width, and from thirty to forty feet deep. By an ingenious contrivance it could be flooded or left dry at will. The thickness of the innermost wall varied from six to nineteen feet. It was from fifteen to seventy feet high. At equal distances, ten rods apart, rose gigantic towers, square, polygonal or circular, projecting from and overtopping the wall.

Now those defenses are ruins, awful and sublime in their unutterable desolation and decay. In places the moat is filled up level with the ground outside, and over the prostrate walls the plough may be driven where their foundations stood. In other places the moat still yawns in all its former depth, and the walls behind still soar in perfect preservation.

In the seventh century the fiery zeal of hitherto unchecked Islam hurled itself during a seven years' siege against Constantinople. That siege was the real crisis in the struggle between Islam and Christianity. Had Constantinople then fallen, the churches of Europe would have been blotted out as had been the still stronger churches of northern Africa. The larger part of Europe, perhaps even America and the United States, would be dominated not by Christianity but by a different faith today.

It is a remarkable fact that from 330 to 1453 Constantinople only once succumbed to foreign attack. No other European city meanwhile had such a record. She alone rose erect above the seething currents of invasion. This unequaled record is the highest tribute both to the incomparable superiority of her position and to the skill and devotion of her sons.

In 1203 civil dissensions called in the Latins to adjust dynastic wrongs, and her walls were carried by the Franks and Venetians of the Fourth Crusade. Long afterward the Latins were driven out, but the shattered empire never could regain all its territory or renew its strength. The population of the capital had shrunk to one hundred thousand souls.

Meanwhile the Ottomans were making their slow, inevitable approach. In 1453 a host of Moslem warriors, more numerous than all the inhabitants of the beleaguered town, assailed its walls. After fifty-seven days of hopeless resistance came the final attack on the 29th of May, that *dies iræ* of the East. The spot where the emperor and his empire fell

A triple line of walls.



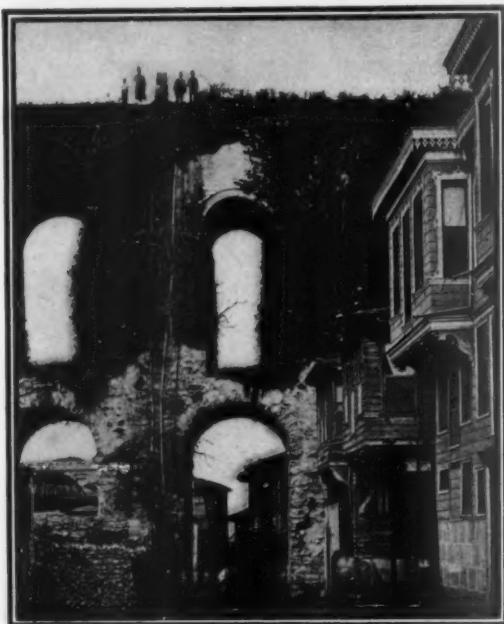
THE YUKSEK KALDERIM.

Fall of Constantinople.

Death of the last
Constantine.

together is holy ground. There has been no sublimer death since time began than that of the last Constantine. Since then Constantinople has been the capital of the Ottomans. But in its new Turkish name, Stamboul, lingered its traditions. The word Stamboul is the Turkish derivative from the word Constantinople. As in Thessalonica, shortened in Turkish fashion to Selanik, the first syllable was omitted and the remaining syllables were crowded together, while preserving a sort of similarity with the original sound.

That 29th of May was four hundred and forty-seven years ago. Since then the great western capitals—Paris, Rome, Vienna, Berlin, Madrid, Moscow, Mexico, Washington—have been entered by a conqueror, some of them many times. Not once in all that period has Constantinople been captured, besieged or attacked. Only once, twenty-three years ago, has she beheld a hostile camp-fire in her borders. Such exemption from the fortune of war is due in part to the jealousies of Europe and the astuteness of Ottoman statecraft, but is mainly the result of strategic, geographic position.



THE AQUEDUCT OF
VALENE.

Constantinople is, as Napoleon called it, the Empire of the World. But this fortress of mankind, this guardian of the seas, this toll-house upon the world's highway, has counted far less in Ottoman possession than it would have done if held by any Christian state. In other hands its peculiar position would ensure immense achievements in diplomacy and war. It is the prime consideration and the Gordian knot of today's diplomacy.

Yet its ultimate destiny can not be a matter of doubt, however distant, and however welcome or unwelcome to our prejudices that outcome may be. It is the door of the Russian house. The course and mouth of the Mississippi belong no more by natural right to the United States than the artery of the Bosphorus, the Marmora, and the Dardanelles to the Russian people. With the untiring patience of the enduring and strong, Russia has watched and waited through the centuries, and is watching and waiting still for the promised day and the promised hour.

Three main periods have each left memorials, though in unequal numbers—the Byzantine or classic, the Greco-Roman or Christian, and the Turkish or Mussulman. All the localities on the Bosphorus or the Marmora, now reckoned in the municipal limits, have not always been inhabited. But in Stamboul the many successive generations have built and dwelt upon the very spots where their predecessors lived. Thus there the debris of time has constantly accumulated, until in the valleys and ravines between the hills a deposit has been formed twenty-five or thirty feet in

Three historic
periods.

depth. Numerous and violent earthquakes have had their share in modifying topography and in the work of destruction. Frightfully devastating fires have been so frequent that on an average the entire city has been rebuilt from its foundations at least once in every fifty years.

It might seem almost strange that any creation of man could survive the repeated earthquakes and conflagrations. So it is natural that in western Europe and America there should be an erroneous impression that Constantinople possesses few memorials of the past, and that its chief and almost only charm is to be found in the picturesqueness of its situation and in its features of oriental life. Its bazaars, indeed, rival those of Cairo or Damascus. Its mosques are the most spacious and magnificent to be found anywhere in the domain of Islam. The palaces of its sultans are as luxurious as oriental extravagance and fancy have been able to erect. The wonder is that the city contains many precious monuments that are far older and that have come down in every form and degree of preservation.

The tourist, coming hither from the south or east, is already sated with turbans and flowing robes and oriental faces. The heterogeneous human mass, made up of a score of nations, and employing the jargon of a score of tongues, for a moment holds his curious attention as it flows in opposite directions across the bridges of Galata. The caiques and boats and barks of every description which dart across the Bosphorus and the Golden Horn blend in a shifting panorama which is always new.

One day the stranger will devote to the Bosphorus. In the early morning, embarking on one of those Turkish steamers which moor against the bridge, he will remain on board while it goes from landing-place to landing-place and at last approaches the entrance to the Black sea. No voyage, equally brief, can anywhere else yield equal delight. What of the day's excursion will remain most definitely painted in his memory it is impossible to say. But there are two pictures which he will not easily

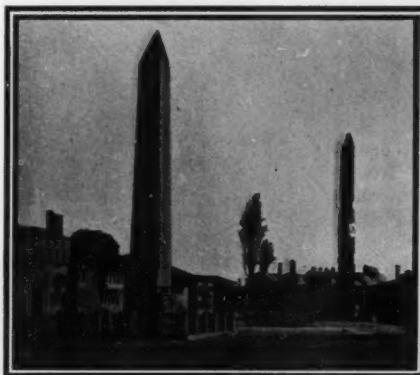
A day on the Bosphorus.

THE THREE EXISTING MONUMENTS OF THE HIPPODROME.

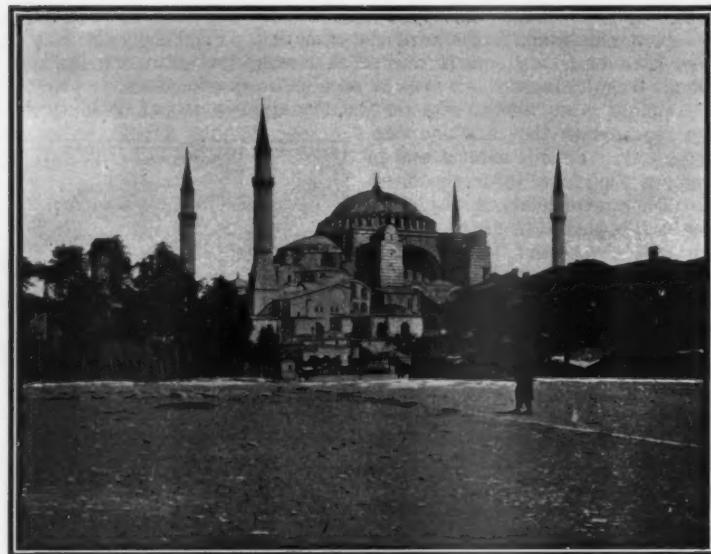
forget. One is the fortress of Roumeli Hissar with its long serrated walls and imposing towers, whence Sultan Mohammed II. marched against the last Byzantine emperor. The other is the stately mammoth form of Giant's mountain as it towers abruptly from the water and commands the strait. Yet there is a third picture still more memorable and more significant in its meaning. It is of the American college, overlooking the grim and dismantled fortress—the college, above which the American flag floats and from which American ideas radiate for the regeneration of the East.



CONSTANTINE XIII.,
THE LAST BYZANTINE EMPEROR.
(From *Groveson's "Constantinople."*)



SANCTA SOPHIA.



The sultan at prayer.

Another day—a Friday always—the stranger will join the throng which lines the road along which the sultan passes in solemn state from his palace to the mosque to offer his weekly prayer. Only death or absolute physical inability to discharge this duty absolves the sovereign from its performance. Whatever else in Constantinople is uncertain, this one thing is sure: the sultan at the appointed time will go to the mosque. Later in the day the tourist will do well to visit some palace on the Bosphorus and above all the Old Seraglio, on Seraglio Point, where the famous treasury of the sultans is guarded. But in entering the treasury let him be prepared for disappointment. The Arabian tales pall upon us as we grow older, and much of the old-time fabulous wealth of the treasury has vanished.

Some day he must take that ride, so impressive yet so melancholy, outside the ancient wall along Justinian's ruined Triumphal Way from the Golden Horn to the Marmora. On the landward side he passes one continuous cemetery wherein millions sleep. On the left he beholds the half-obliterated moat and the almost endless pile of solid masonry, which bade defiance to every foe and made Constantinople in the middle ages the best fortified city on the continent. Returning, let him dismiss his carriage after he has crossed the bridge. Then let him climb in Galata up the Yuksek Kalderim, the old Step street of the Genoese buccaneers and bankers who terrorized the populace in the middle ages. At its top let him enter the tower of Galata and mount in the winding passage constructed in its wall, till from its very summit he revels in the marvelous view.

THE EGYPTIAN
BAZAAK.
(From *Grovesnor's
"Constantinople."*)

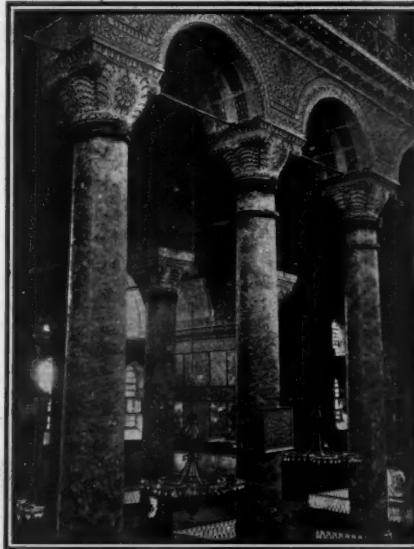
The whirling dervishes of European Pera are no less quaint and grotesque than the howling dervishes of Asiatic Scutari. That stay is incomplete which does not enable one to witness the peculiar and repellent religious observances of both. One may well visit Scutari, that one may enter the exquisite British cemetery wherein lie thousands of British soldiers, victims of the Crimean war. Just behind it is the hospital, consecrated by the unselfish labor of a woman, Florence Nightingale.

Stamboul is the city of mosques, more than five hundred, great and small, being included within its walls. In the years immediately after the conquest, each of the sultans erected several as acts of piety. That of Sultan Mohammed II., the Conqueror, is the most imposing and austere. That of Sultan Souleiman the Magnificent is the most grandiose and ornate. That of Sultan Achmet I. is airy, almost ethereal in its proportions, and vies with the Caaba of Mecca in the number of minarets. Each of the three is a Mussulman ecclesiastical type; Sultan Mohammed's of simplicity, Sultan Souleiman's of elegance, Sultan Achmet's of grace.

Stamboul a city of mosques.

In the Constantinople of the Byzantine emperors every hill and square was crowned with an imperial column. The pedestals and broken shafts peer above ground here and there. In the dreary waste of the Atmeidan, which occupies the site of the hippodrome and lies west of the mosque-yard of Sultan Achmet, three still remain. One is an obelisk, brought from Egypt by Constantine himself and raised to position by Theodosius the Great. On its pedestal may still be seen the battered faces of Theodosius, his wife and children; also representations of the games which once took place in the open space around. Another is a shaft of cubic stones, and was formerly sheathed in brass. A ruin though erect, it seems to threaten a speedy fall. So perfect is its construction, so exact its center of gravity, that though the earthquake has often convulsed the Atmeidan it has not been shaken down. Between the obelisk and the built column is the headless, brazen serpent of Delphi. There is no more precious relic of classic antiquity in existence. Cast by the Greeks at the close of the Persian wars as a thank-offering to the god Apollo, it was set up at Delphi in his most sacred shrine. Constantine brought it hither and placed it on its marble base to mark the exact center of the hippodrome. Still discernible on its lower coils are the names of the immortal Greek cities which vanquished Mardonius at the battle of Platæa. The letters were cut in the brass no later than four hundred and seventy-six years before Christ, and have thus perpetuated almost two thousand four hundred years the triumph over Persia of European civilization and of Greece. Still farther west stands the porphyry column of Constantine the Great, blackened and rent by the frequent fires which have raged around it, its fragments held together by great iron bands.

Monuments of the Constantinian era are the cisterns, vast subterranean



EPHESIAN COLUMNS
IN SANCTA
SOPHIA.

Brazen serpent of Delphi.

SUPPOSED SARCOPHAGUS OF ALEXANDER.



Immense subterranean edifices.

Sarcophagi from Sidon.

THE ROYAL CISTERNS.
(From Groveson's "Constantinople.")

edifices, whose vaulted roofs are supported by rows of marble columns. The two most immense are Bin-bir Derek, the Thousand and One Columns, and Yeri Batan Seral, the Underground Palace. There is little difference between these two in size. The latter is still in perfect preservation, its roof intact. Its three hundred and thirty-six columns, twelve feet apart, arranged in twenty-eight symmetric rows, stand each in place, crowned by a fine wrought capital. Three hundred and ninety feet long from east to west and one hundred and seventy-four feet wide, it is the vastest in existence. It still serves its original purpose, supplying water from the ivy-wrapped Aqueduct of Valens in as copious measure as of old. Countless myths and legends cluster around the Underground Palace. In it General Lew Wallace locates a romantic incident of his "Prince of India."

The Imperial Museum of Antiquities is rich in treasures. Most of its precious possessions are guarded in two buildings, one of which, called the Chinili Kiosk, is the oldest Mussulman edifice in the city. In the other building may be seen the wonderful sarcophagi from Sidon. Among them two are preëminent. The one is the Sarcophagus of the Weepers, so called from the eighteen exquisite female figures, half life size, which are carved in attitudes of grief upon its sides. The other is the so-called Sarcophagus of Alexander. The face of the Macedonian hero is unmistakable in one of its lateral battle scenes, and it may be that this was the coffin which held his dust. These two have no superior, even if they have a peer, in any museum of western Europe.

And last, as most memorable of all that he may behold, let the stranger enter Sancta Sophia, the chief temple of oriental orthodoxy, the masterpiece of Byzantine art, the prayer of an empire and an epoch expressed in marble and stone. Its exterior, disfigured by buttresses and constructions of every sort, gives no conception of what it was at its completion. The interior is distorted by the rude Ottoman devices which obscure its walls, and by the incongruous furniture of Moslem worship. Thick coats



of whitewash conceal its priceless mosaics. Its untold wealth of gold and silver ornamentation was stripped from it long ago. It has been worn by the feet and dimmed by the dust of countless throngs of worshipers through more than thirteen hundred and fifty years. And yet, dark and dingy and disfigured by conquest and time, the mere shadow or skeleton of what it was in its early splendor, it is still — in the words of Fergusson, that high authority on architecture and art — “the most perfect and most beautiful church which has yet been erected by any Christian people.” The German Lübke calls it, “the highest model of all future ages.” So, when the stranger departs from the Queen City of the East, let Sancta Sophia dominate all his other memories.

1. Describe the three routes to Constantinople. 2. What associations are recalled by Lemnos, the Thracian Chersonesus, Troy, the Hellespont, Granicus, Ägæos Potamos, and Lybissa? 3. What promontory lies directly opposite Stamboul? 4. What building marks the site of old Byzantium? 5. What mosque of later associations stands near it? 6. What territory is at present included under the name Constantinople? 7. What famous cemetery lies on the east side of the Bosphorus? 8. What two other striking landmarks stand out as we approach the city from the south? 9. What important place does Constantinople occupy in the history of the world's greatest cities? 10. What does it signify to the Moslem? 11. What associations has it for Christians? 12. What ruler laid the foundations of the city's greatness? 13. What commercial and strategic advantages had the city? 14. In what respects did Constantinople resemble Rome? 15. What monument still recalls the dedication of the city to Christianity? 16. What bulwarks were erected by Theodosius II., and when? 17. What was the significance of the siege of the city in the seventh century? 18. What splendid record of stability did the city make between 330 and 1453? 19. When did Constantinople first succumb to a foreigner, and why? 20. What was the cause of its final fall, and when? 21. How have the Turks modified the name of the city? 22. Why has Constantinople been exempt from siege in the centuries which have followed? 23. What problem does the city offer to modern diplomacy? 24. Why are there so few remains of the older civilizations of the city? 25. What three periods comprise its history? 26. Describe the sights of a trip along the Bosphorus. 27. What weekly devotional service is performed by the sultan? 28. What object of interest is found on Seraglio point? 29. Describe the ride outside the ancient wall. 30. What interest has Galata? 31. What historic associations cluster about Scutari? 32. How many mosques are to be found in Stamboul? What are the most important? 33. What remains of the old Byzantine hippodrome still exist? 34. Describe the great underground cisterns. 35. What famous objects discovered at Sidon are in the Imperial Museum? 36. Describe the mosque of St. Sophia.

Review Questions.

1. What famous general planned treason at Byzantium? 2. What cities have at different times claimed the horses of St. Mark now at Venice? 3. How did the Turkish flag get its symbol of star and crescent? 4. What is the origin of the word Byzantium? 5. Ottoman? 6. Who were the “blues” and “greens” of the Byzantine empire? 7. What is the Nicene Creed? 8. What European rulers were contemporary with Haroun al Raschid?

Search Questions.

Constantinople. Edwin A. Grosvenor (2 vols. Revised edition, Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1900). This is the recognized authority and by far the most important work on the city. Comprehensive, impartial and admirably written, it is equally fascinating to the general reader and valuable to the scholar. Enriched with several hundred fine illustrations. Says the *Saturday Review*, London, “We doubt if anything approaching this exhaustive description has been published in *ε γα το γα* tongue.” *Handbook for Constantinople, Brusa, and the Troad*. Sir C. W. Wilson (London: John Murray, 1893). A convenient guide-book. *Ancient and Modern Constantinople*. Translated from the Greek of the Ecumenical Patriarch Constantios I. by John P. Brown, secretary of the American legation at the Sublime Porte. (Stevens Brothers, London, 1868.) Very valuable but now rare. *Byzantine Constantinople*. A. van Millingen (London, 1899). A scholarly description of the walls and adjoining historical sites. *Constantinople*. Francis Marion Crawford. A brief but delightful and picturesque dissertation upon the city of today. *Life on the Bosphorus*. W. J. J. Spry (London, 1895). Profusely illustrated, popular and interesting. *Constantinople*. Translated from the Italian of Edmondo de Amicis. Brilliantly written, but unreliable and inaccurate. *Along the Bosphorus*. Mrs. Susan E. Wallace. Charming and graphic sketches. *The Prince of India*. General Lew Wallace. This splendid historical romance is remarkable for its vivid and accurate reproduction of Constantinople and its people at the time of the Ottoman conquest. *Constantinople*. Brodrribb and Besant (London, 1879). A condensed sketch of the city until its capture by the Ottoman Turks. *The Byzantine Empire*. C. W. C. Oman, *Turkey*. Stanley Lane-Poole. Both of these excellent volumes are found in the “Story of the Nations” series. Gibbon's *History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, especially chapters XVII., LX., and LXVIII. Articles on *Constantinople* and the *Turkish Empire* by Edwin A. Grosvenor in Johnson's *Universal Cyclopaedia* (editions of 1893-95 and 1900).

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CRITICAL STUDIES IN FRENCH LITERATURE.*

VI. THE SHORT STORY IN FRANCE.

BY WALTER T. PEIRCE.



THE literature which for a century has stood at the front in the production of the novel has given us three short-story writers: Prosper Mérimée, Alphonse Daudet, and Guy de Maupassant. In Daudet's case, his fame as a story-teller is overshadowed by his fame as a novelist; but the renown of the other two rests on the base of the short story alone.

Of De Maupassant it is not our purpose here to treat. In point of technique he perhaps more nearly attains perfection than the other two, uniting with a Greek sense of form a French brilliancy of style; but the matter in which he deals is too highly seasoned with Gallic salt to be acceptable to the Anglo-Saxon palate. For this reason out of the twelve volumes of his stories Mr. Sturges selects a bare thirteen which lend themselves to translation;* but these thirteen are exquisite bits of work.

Mérimée.

De Maupassant began work late and died young; from his first published work to his death it was but twelve years. Mérimée, on the other hand, lived to be sixty-seven, and the period of his literary activity covers forty-five years. Yet the work he has left us has not half the bulk of that of the younger author. A handful of little plays, two tales that may be called novellettes, but by no means novels, and a dozen or more short stories—that is all. But by virtue of these masterpieces in miniature he takes his rank with great story-tellers from Boccaccio to Kipling.

Mérimée's longest stories, and possibly his best, are "Colomba" and "Carmen," the latter well known in this country by reason of the opera and play drawn from it. But these tales, while extremely condensed in the telling, are novellettes rather than short stories, and we will consider as a type of the latter the story of "Mateo Falcone."

Lest some readers should be revolted by the theme of this tale, let me say that Mérimée usually lays his scenes in countries where civilization has done little to curb the natural instincts of the people, where beneath a thin veneer goes on the clash of primitive passions. The gypsies and smugglers of Spain, the bandits of Corsica, the conspirators of medieval Moscow, the assassins of St. Bartholomew, the insurgent peasants of the war of La Jacquerie, the African slavers, the atrocious grandees of old New Spain—such is the chosen company of Mérimée.

Outline of the story.

The scene of "Mateo Falcone" is laid in Corsica, which is also "Colomba's" native island. Mateo is an excellent shot, a stanch friend and a dangerous enemy, with very few murders on his conscience, and withal so tender hearted that he never kills a mountain goat if she has kids. Mateo and his wife, Giuseppa, have one son, Fortunato: one day when this boy is about ten years old, his father and mother go to a distant



1 "The more carefully we study the history of fiction the more clearly we perceive that the novel and the short story are essentially different—that the difference between them is not one of mere length only, but is fundamental. The short story seeks one set of effects in a wholly distinct way. We are led, also, to the conclusion that the short story—in spite of the fact that in our language it has no name of its own—is one of the few sharply defined literary forms. It is as distinct an entity as the epic, as tragedy, as comedy."—*Brander Matthews*.

* "The Odd Number." Translated by Jonathan Sturges.

* No. 1, "The Song of Roland," appeared in the October CHAUTAUQUAN; No. 2, "Montaigne and Essay Writing in France," in the November CHAUTAUQUAN; No. 3, "Tartuffe: a Typical Comedy of Molière," in the December CHAUTAUQUAN; No. 4, "Lyrists and Lyrics of Old France," in the January CHAUTAUQUAN; No. 5, Hugo's "Ninety-Three," in the February CHAUTAUQUAN.

clearing, leaving him to tend the house. Fortunato, half-asleep in the sun, is aroused by the sound of shots, and soon a wounded bandit comes in. He is pursued by the *gendarmes*, and demands asylum of Fortunato. The child pretends to hesitate from fear of his father, but at last demands a bribe for concealing him. The bandit gives him five francs, and the boy hides him in a heap of hay near the house. He even puts a cat and her kittens on top of the hay, and covers the blood spots with dust. Then he lies down in the sun and awaits the coming of the *gendarmes*.

They soon arrive, headed by an adjutant, a cousin of Mateo's.

"Good day, little cousin. Did you see a man pass just now?"

"Did I see a man pass?"

"Yes, a man with a peaked cap of black velvet, and a vest embroidered in red and yellow."

"A man with a peaked cap, and a vest embroidered in red and yellow?"

"Yes, answer quickly, and do not repeat my questions."

"This morning the priest passed before our door, on his horse Piero. He asked me how papa was and I told him—"

And so forth. Fortunato keeps the adjutant at arm's length with his *Fortunato bribed*. jesting, and finally goes to lie down on the heap of hay, advising his cousin to remember that he is dealing with Mateo Falcone's house and son. The house is searched, but reveals nothing. Baffled, they are about to leave when Gamba bethinks himself of bribery. He holds out to the child a silver watch at the end of a chain. Fortunato does not take it, but his eyes take the expression of a cat to which one has offered a chicken.

"Why do you tease me?"

"Per Dio I am not teasing you. Tell me where Giannetto is, and the watch is yours."

Speaking thus, he brought the watch still closer, till it almost touched the child's pale cheek. The latter shewed in his face that his soul was torn between covetousness and the respect due to hospitality. His bare breast heaved, and he seemed almost stifled. Meanwhile the watch swung, turned, and sometimes struck his nose. Finally, little by little, his right hand was raised toward the watch; his fingers touched it, and he weighed it in his hand. The face of the watch was blue—the case newly polished—in the sun it seemed to be on fire. The temptation was too strong. He raised his left hand and pointed with his thumb, over his shoulder, at the heap of hay against which he was leaning. The adjutant understood.

The bandit is dragged forth and bound, and preparations are made for leaving. At this juncture Mateo and his wife appear, and learn the state of affairs. They have little to say, even the bound Giannetto from his litter spits upon the doorsill, saying: "House of a traitor!"

Capture of the bandit.

When the procession is gone, Mateo is silent for some time. His son commences to make his peace, when his mother sees the end of the watch chain hanging out of his shirt. They understand. The father throws his gun across his shoulder and starts for the woods, ordering his son to follow. Giuseppa, realizing the futility of words, returns to the cabin to pray.

Meanwhile Falcone walked some two hundred steps along the path, and stopped in a little ravine. He sounded the ground with the butt of his gun and found it soft and easy to dig. The spot seemed suitable for his plan.

"Fortunato, go over to that big stone."

The child did as he was ordered, then fell on his knees.

"Say your prayers."

"Father, father, do not kill me."

"Say your prayers."

The child, stammering and sobbing, recited the Pater and the Credo. The father responded Amen loudly after each prayer.

"Are those all the prayers you know?"

"I know also the Ave Maria and the litany my aunt taught me."

"It is long, but no matter."

The child finished the litany in a faint voice.

"Have you finished?"

"Oh, father, mercy. Forgive me. I will never do it again."

He was still speaking; Mateo had cocked his gun and was taking aim, saying, "May God pardon you." The child made a desperate effort to rise and embrace his father's knees; but he had no time. Mateo fired, and Fortunato fell dead.

Without glancing at the corpse Mateo went back to the house for a spade with which to

Concealing the bandit.

bury his son. He had made only a few steps when he met Giuseppa, alarmed at the sound of the firing.

"What have you done?" she cried.

"Justice."

"Where is he?"

"In the ravine. I am going to bury him. He had a Christian death. I will have mass said for him. — Send for my son-in-law Tiodoro Bianchi to come and live with us."

Alphonse Daudet.

Late in the sixties Alphonse Daudet, a young Provençal lately come to Paris, little-known author of one novel, and employed on the *Temps*, retired to his native Provence for a brief season, and sent back to his paper weekly sketches for the *feuilleton*. Down in Provence, near Nîmes, he took up his quarters in one of the old windmills formerly so common there, and from this retreat came the sketches, stories and fantasies, now known as the "Letters from My Mill." The pathos of "Jack," the epic power of "Kings in Exile," the keen satire of "Tartarin" and "Numa Roumestan," or the grim realism of "The Nabob" and "Sappho" may have caused some persons to forget the slight grace of these early pictures; but there will always be others who will love Daudet best for them, and for the little dramas of the Prussian war which followed in the "Monday Tales."

Scene of his stories. Most of these stories, and all of the best of them, have their scenes in Provence, and are

"full of the warm south,
Dance, and Provençal song, and sunburnt mirth."

Some are merely sketches, not stories at all, as "Aged Folk" and "The Poet Minstral;" some are flashes of lurid drama, as "The Beaucaire Diligence," "The Two Inns," and "The Arlesian Girl;" some are simply stories of Provençal country life, "The Secret of Maitre Cornille;" some are tales of grotesque fantasy, "The Curé of Cucugnan" and "The Elixir of the Reverend Père Gaucher;" some are exquisite poetic fancy, "M. Séguin's Goat," "The Stars" and "The Sub-prefect in the Fields;" and some, perhaps the best of all, are drawn from the Provence of the troubadours' times, "The Three Low Masses," and "The Pope's Mule."

As examples of his different styles, we will take up first "The Stars," and afterward "The Pope's Mule," a longer and more elaborate one.

The story of "The Stars."

It is a Provençal shepherd who tells the story of "The Stars." High up on Mount Luberon he lives with his flock, alone, save when once in two weeks the farm-boy or the old Aunt Norade brings him provisions and gossip from the farm in the valley. All news from the farm was welcome, but especially that which concerned Stéphanette, his master's daughter. "What difference could that make to me, me, a poor shepherd of the mountain? I answer that I was twenty years old, and that Stéphanette was the prettiest thing I had ever seen in all my life."

Shepherd and maid.

But one Sunday the provisions came very late. At noon, there was a great storm; but at three o'clock, the sky being washed clean, the mountain glistening with water and sun, he hears amid the dripping of the leaves and the rush of swollen streams, the tinkling of the mule bells, as gay, as lively as an Easter carol. But it is not the little farm-boy nor yet old Norade; it is — guess who? — it is the demoiselle in person, all pink with the mountain air and the coolness of the storm.

"So you live here, my poor shepherd? How tiresome it must be to be always alone. What do you do? What do you think about?"

I wanted to answer: "Of you, mistress," and I would not have lied; but I could find not a word to say. I think she saw my trouble, for she went on:

"And your sweetheart, shepherd, does she come up to see you sometimes? Surely she must be the fairy Esterelle, who runs on the tops of the mountains."

And she herself had the air of the fairy Esterelle, with her pretty laugh, her head thrown back, and her haste to be gone.

"Adieu, shepherd."

"Good bye, mistress."

And she is gone. But when the sheep begin to press into the close and

the valleys to veil themselves in blue, back comes my lady, no longer jaunty as before, but frightened, cold, and wet. She has been almost drowned in a stream, and going home is not to be thought of till morning.

Night has come. The shepherd builds a great fire, and his mistress dries her clothes by it; then she retires to the hut for the night, while he stays by the fire. But she can not sleep; the sheep frighten her by pressing too close; and by and by my demoiselle Stéphanette creeps out and sits down by the fire, wrapped in the shepherd's cloak. And side by side they pass the night under the stars.

"How many of them there are. I never saw so many—do you know their names, shepherd?"

"Oh yes, mistress—see. Just above us is St. James' Road (the milky way). It goes from France straight into Spain. St. James of Galicia traced it to show the way to the brave Charlemagne. Farther away, there is the Chariot of Souls (the great bear) with its four glittering axles. And lower down are the Three Kings (Orion).—But the most beautiful of all the stars, mistress, is our own, The Star of the Shepherds, which lights us at dawn when we lead out the flock, and again at night when we bring it back. We call her also Maguelonne, the fair Maguelonne who runs after Peter of Provence (Sirius) and every seven years marries him."

"How, shepherd! There are marriages among the stars?"

"Oh, yes, mistress."

And as I was trying to explain what these marriages were, I felt something cool and soft weigh lightly on my shoulder. It was her sleepy head which rested against me with a little rustling of ribbons, lace, and wavy hair. She remained so without stirring until the stars began to pale in the rising dawn. I watched her sleep, troubled a little in the depth of my being, but protected by that clear night which has never given any but beautiful thoughts. Around us, the stars continued their silent march, gentle as a great flock; and at moments I imagined that one of these stars, the finest, the most brilliant, having lost its way, had come to rest upon my shoulder to sleep.

The story of "The Pope's Mule" has its origin in an old Provençal saying: "*La mule du pape garde son coup-de-pied sept ans.*" This is usually taken to mean: "The pope's slipper keeps its instep seven years." But by a double meaning in two of the words, it may also read: "The pope's mule saves its kick for seven years," and it is this meaning that Daudet has whimsically chosen to weave his story about. The pope in question is a certain Boniface, and the scene is Avignon, in the time of the great schism of the fourteenth century.

This pope is a good old soul with but two weaknesses: his vineyard and his mule. On pleasant evenings he would mount his mule and ride out to the vineyard, followed by his courtiers. There he would sit and drink his ruby-colored Château-Neuf des Papes, and then, in the twilight, ride back to the city over the bridge of Avignon, "where every one dances round and round."

Now, such was the pope's love for his mule, that to praise her was sufficient passport to his favor; and this knew Tistet Védène, a certain ne'er-do-well of Avignon. This Tistet would approach his Holiness, and, clasping his hands in admiration, would say:

"Ah, mon Dieu! Great Holy Father, what a fine mule you have there. Just let me look at her a little. Ah, pope, what a beautiful mule. The emperor of Germany has not such a one."

Then, addressing the mule:

"Come here, my jewel, my treasure, my pearl."

And the good pope would say to himself:

"What a good little fellow. And how nice to my mule."

And the upshot of it was that Tistet Védène entered the service of the pope, and was appointed to carry the bowl of wine, spiced, sweetened and steaming, which was the mule's daily portion. Which was all very fine for Tistet. Not so for the mule. The young scamp would invite the choir boys out to the stable, and there under the mule's very nose, they drank her wine. Nor was that all; they played her the basest tricks; they pulled her tail and her ears, and tried their caps on her head. And once—the villainy of it—once they coaxed her up into the tower of the

A night with the stars.

"The Pope's Mule."

The mule in the tower.

palace, and there, the next morning, in the sight of two hundred thousand Provençaux, stood the mule, on the platform at the very top.

It was Tistet Védène who wept and tore his hair at this sight.

"Ah, great Holy Father, see your mule. Mon Dieu! What will become of us? Your mule has gone up into the tower—"

"All alone?"

"Yes, great Holy Father, all alone. Do you see the tips of her ears up there, like two swallows?"

It was necessary in the end to lower the poor animal with cranes and pulleys, and no one was busier at this than Tistet. The mule as she swung in the air, made a vow that if ever again he got behind her—well, from far Pampérigouste they should see the dust of that kick. But before the next morning Tistet Védène was on his way to Naples to the court of Queen Joanna, there to learn diplomacy and fine manners. This as a reward for his activity in rescuing the mule.

And the disappointment of the latter in the morning. "Ah, the bandit! He suspected something. But never mind; you'll find that kick when you get back—I'll save it for you." And she saved it.

Now her life resumed its old tranquillity. But it was not quite the same; people would smile when they met her, and point to the tower. And the pope himself had hardly the same confidence in her. The mule noticed, but said nothing; only whenever she heard the name of Tistet Védène her ears twitched, and she laughed silently as she sharpened her shoes on the pavement.

Planning for revenge.

Seven years of waiting.

Satisfaction at last.

Seven years passed; Tistet returned from Naples to assume the position of first mustardbearer to the pope. The day of ordination was appointed, all preparations for the ceremony made and—the mule spent the night before practising on the wall; she too was preparing for a ceremony.

The day came; Tistet appeared, blond and smiling, in a Provençal jacket and with an ibis feather in his cap; but on his way to receive the insignia of office he stopped to pat the mule, watching out of one corner of his eye to see if the pope was looking. The position was good—she drew herself together—

"There. I have you, bandit. I've been saving this up for you for seven years." And she gave him a kick so terrible, so terrible, that from far Pampérigouste they saw the dust, a whirlwind of blond dust, in the midst of which twirled an ibis feather; all that was left of the unfortunate Tistet Védène.

Mules' kicks are not always so annihilating; but this was a papal mule; and then, think, she had saved it up for seven years.—I know of no better example of ecclesiastical rancor.

THE INNER LIFE OF ODYSSEUS.*

✠ ✠ BY HAROLD N. FOWLER. ✠ ✠

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DYSSEUS was, according to the Homeric poems, the ruling chief of the island of Ithaca. The dates of his birth and death cannot be given, nor can any details of his childhood or early life be narrated. In fact, we cannot be quite sure that he ever existed at all; for all our information concerning him is based upon the Homeric poems, and it is difficult to tell how far these are to be regarded as historical documents. Not many years ago it was customary to consider the Homeric poems almost absolutely unhistorical, and to think of

* This is the sixth CHAUTAUQUAN study of the Inner Life of Historic Figures in France and Greece. *Fénelon*, by Charles M. Stuart, appeared in October; *Fascal*, by Nathaniel Luccock, appeared in November; *Madame Guyon*, by Jesse L. Hurlbut, appeared in December; *Corot*, by Adelia A. Field Johnston, appeared in January; *The Chevalier Bayard*, by Vincent Van Marter Beede, appeared in February.

the heroes mentioned in them as mere creations of a poet's imagination; A semi-historical character. but the discoveries of the late Dr. Schliemann and others have proved that there was in Greece and some of the neighboring regions at a time before 1000 B. C. a civilization strikingly resembling that described in the Homeric poems, and that we have every reason to believe that the Homeric poems, far removed as they are from being accurate historical narratives, are nevertheless ultimately based on fact.

In somewhat the same way the medieval stories of Charlemagne and his knights, Roland, Rinaldo, and the rest, are based on facts, for we know that Charlemagne really existed and performed many great deeds, but the stories themselves are far from being accurate history. The Roland who was killed at Roncesvalles was a real man, but the adventures of the Roland who was enamored of Angelica and traveled over all the known world and many fabulous regions performing wonderful deeds of heroism are not historical, nor is the hero of these adventures any more historical than if no man named Roland had ever drawn his sword in Charlemagne's service and lost his life at Roncesvalles. And yet the legendary Roland has a definite character. He is always courageous, always truthful, always ready to help a lady in distress; and in addition to these traits, which he has in common with the other heroes of the medieval tales, he has a violent temper, which tends to turn his courage into rashness, and a self-confidence, which makes his boldness overbold. Moreover, we can see by his actions, and we are told by the poets, that he was a sincere and faithful believer in Christianity, while his superstitious belief in sorcery and all kinds of magic is evident. None of these qualities is, however, to be ascribed to the historical Roland, of whom next to nothing is known. They belong to the legendary character as he was created by the medieval poets,—poets who lived many years, if not centuries, after the death of the historical personage whose name they made so great. But if the qualities of the legendary Roland do not belong to the historical Roland, have they any historical value or any interest for us? Certainly they have; for Roland is one of the ideal heroes of the middle ages, and his qualities are those which the medieval poets chose to give to such a hero. From a study of Roland we can learn, not what the qualities of a baron of France in the time of Charlemagne really were, but what the poets of a later period thought they were and thought they ought to have been. Roland, with all his individuality, may be regarded as a type, but not as a type of the real men of the time of Charlemagne. He is a type of the ideal men of a century or two after Charlemagne, and as such he is an interesting study, for the ideal men of any age are likely to be such as the real men of that time would be if they could.

As in the case of Roland, so in that of Odysseus, we can study the Odysseus a type. mental and moral qualities, the thoughts, beliefs, and motives disclosed by his conduct and by what the poet tells us of him, but we must study them as characteristic of a type, of an ideal, not a real person, and we must regard them as belonging not to a man of the period to which Odysseus, if he ever lived, really belonged, but rather to a man of the time to which the Homeric poems must be assigned, not far from 800 B. C. With this understanding we may study the character and the inner life of Odysseus with interest and profit.

Of his early life little is recorded. He was the son of Laertes, chief of Ithaca, and his wife Anticleia. As a youth he must have been brave and vigorous, for we are told that he distinguished himself in a boar hunt when he was visiting his grandfather Autolycus. He was still a comparatively young man, though his father had already retired from the government and put him in charge of affairs at Ithaca, when he was called to lead the Ithacan contingent to the Trojan war. At Troy he distinguished himself for valor, and especially for wisdom in counsel and craft in strategy, and was the personal favorite of Athena, the goddess

Similar medieval stories based on fact.

Roland both a historical and a legendary character.

Early life of Odysseus.

of war and of wisdom. So far his character is sketched for us in the "Iliad." It is, however, to the "Odyssey" that we must look for most of our information, for Odysseus, who is only one of the chief heroes of the "Iliad," is the central figure of the "Odyssey." Here he is constantly before us as the "resourceful," the "much-enduring," the "man of many wiles," whose courage, endurance, and craft triumph, with the aid of Athena, over all obstacles and all opponents.

Character of Athena.

The character of Athena and her relation to Odysseus throw some light upon the religious beliefs of the time. Athena is no better and no worse than Odysseus himself. Nowhere does she disclose any moral qualities greater than those of men. She is more powerful than any human being, and she is able to move at will from place to place and to assume any form she chooses, but she accomplishes her purposes not by the mere exercise of divine will, but by physical force or by deceit. She is loyal to Odysseus, whom she has taken under her protection, apparently because he displays the same qualities for which she is herself distinguished, but her kindness to him has the character rather of personal friendship than of divine benevolence called forth by any moral excellence on his part. She pleads his cause in the assembly of the gods, and bespeaks the favor of Zeus for him on the ground that he had prayed to Zeus at Troy, but not on the ground of good works, exceptional faith in the gods, or moral worth. When Poseidon is angry with Odysseus because he has put out the eye of Polyphemus, Poseidon's son, Athena refrains from helping her favorite until her powerful uncle is in some measure appeased. Poseidon's wrath, like Athena's friendship, is due to strictly personal reasons, such as move human beings, not to any considerations of right or justice.

Her relation to Odysseus.

The gods are evidently to Odysseus hardly more than human beings of more than human power. They are propitiated by prayers and sacrifices, and there are also certain acts which they are supposed to approve, such as hospitality to strangers and kindness to beggars, "for in the charge of Zeus all strangers and beggars stand," but they do not see and judge men's souls. When they wish to help or hinder human action they do it, as men do, by external means. Once, to be sure, Odysseus says, "when wise Athena puts it in my mind, then will I nod my head," implying that the goddess has direct influence on the mind without recourse to any visible means; and on several occasions Athena sends visions to sleepers to influence their actions, but even then it is rather the goddess herself who visits the sleepers than a purely mental action on her part. The gods also disclose their intentions by the flight of birds and by other omens.

Conception of the gods.

The conception of the gods as differing only in some particulars from mortals makes it easy for men to appeal to them under all circumstances, with confidence that they will not be misunderstood, and we find Odysseus and others praying to the gods frequently and with apparent faith that their prayers will be heard. The gods are evidently regarded as near at hand and sympathetic. But, on the other hand, the inability to conceive of the gods as essentially different from and higher than men leads to a familiarity of treatment which savors of disrespect. The most striking instance of this in the "Odyssey" is the tale of the loves of Ares and Aphrodite told by the poet Demodocus and heard with pleasure by Odysseus and the assembled Phaeacians; but elsewhere, too, even in the intercourse of Odysseus with his protecting deity, Athena, there is frequently what seems to us a lack of reverence. Yet sometimes we find a reverent attitude towards the gods which testifies to the beginnings of a higher conception of them. So when Telemachus urges his father to look for aid against the suitors, Odysseus says: "Nay, let me speak, and do you mark and listen. Consider if Athena, joined with father Zeus, suffice for us, or shall I seek for other aid?" And Telemachus is content with the assurance of divine assistance. "Excellent helpers," he replies, "are those two, seated high among the clouds, who rule all others, both

men and immortal gods." And when Odysseus and Telemachus are removing the armor from the hall, Athena gives them light for their work, which Telemachus notices. He calls his father's attention to the wonder, adding, "Surely some god is in the house, such as those that hold the open sky." And Odysseus replies, "Hush, and restrain your thoughts and ask no questions. This is the way of the gods who hold Olympus." Here is a touch of genuine reverence.

Thus, although there is as yet no real distinction in Odysseus's mind between the human and the divine nature, there is at least the beginning of reverent awe. The actual deeds and motives of the gods may not be different from those of men, but there is a vague consciousness that after all they belong to a higher sphere. When we, after nineteen centuries of Christianity have shaped our religious conceptions, look back at the conceptions of Odysseus, we find them crude and coarse; his gods appear as nothing more than men whom he treats as his equals, or as his superiors only in power. But if we compare the conceptions of Odysseus as disclosed in the "Odyssey" with those displayed in the "Iliad," we see that the Greek world was advancing, and that in the time between the composition of the greater part of the "Iliad" and that of the greater part of the "Odyssey" the gods had grown more dignified, less prone to quarreling among themselves, in general more idealized and more fit to be the objects of serious worship.¹

Gods rank higher than men.

Besides the gods "who hold Olympus," Odysseus, in common with all the pagan Greeks, knew many less important divinities. The mountain heights were peopled by woodland nymphs, who accompanied the goddess Artemis in the hunt, special nymphs delighted in special caves, each river had its god, the depths of the sea were inhabited by a host of divinities subject to the great sea-god Poseidon. All these were personifications of nature in her various forms, as, indeed, were the great gods themselves. To all of these, powers of good and ill were ascribed, but they differed from the great gods in being more limited in their sphere of action. They were worshiped with prayer and sacrifice, but their worship was confined to the places with which they were especially connected. Each of the great gods was omnipotent, except as none could oppose the will of Zeus or the decision of a council of the gods; but the nymphs, river-gods, and the like, were powerful only within comparatively narrow limits. Other superhuman beings also existed who owed their divinity to descent from one of the greater gods. Such was, for instance, Circe, the daughter of the sun-god, while Calypso, the other goddess with whom Odysseus lived, was the local nymph of a lonely island.

Many minor divinities.

Thus, for Odysseus the world was full of gods of different degrees of power, but all very human in their thoughts and feelings. They loved and favored those who worshiped them, but it was the offered or promised sacrifice, rather than the mental or moral attitude of the worshiper, which determined the conduct of the gods. It is only in exceptional cases that the gods punish a man for wrong-doing or reward him for doing right unless his misconduct or righteousness has been directed against themselves, as by the breaking of an oath on the one hand or the offering of a hecatomb on the other. These gods had therefore little direct influence for good or ill upon men's conduct, except as exercising a restraining force, especially through oaths, and by the protection they were supposed to grant to strangers and suppliants. Odysseus, like most of the Homeric chiefs, was kind and courteous, loyal to his friends, just and even generous, but these good qualities were not especially encouraged by the belief in the gods.

Human aspect of the gods.

If the gods do not in any other way urge men to righteousness, they might do so by a system of rewards and punishments after death. But Odysseus knew no such system. He was obliged to visit the abode of the dead to consult the prophet Teiresias about his voyage, and the

¹See Professor Capps's "Homer to Theocritus," p. 109.

description of what he saw and heard there gives a clear idea of the gloomy and hopeless attitude of the early Greek mind toward the future life, just as Dante shows us the hopes and fears of medieval Christians.

To reach the home of the dead, Odysseus sails away to the dim and distant regions of the west, to the great stream of Ocean which encircles the earth. Here he performs sacrifices, offering a ram and a black ewe, whose blood runs into a trench dug in the sand. The spirits of the dead crowd about him, coming up from Erebus, to drink the blood. Here he is enabled to question them, and to answer the questions they ask. These spirits are mere forms, with no material bodies, powerless shapes. They have no knowledge of anything that has happened on earth since their own death, except what they may have learned from those who have come later from the upper world. Each spirit which holds converse with Odysseus asks him about friends and relatives not yet dead. In fact, the only interest they seem to feel is in things of the upper world; for the life they lead after death has nothing real or interesting in it. In a few cases, as that of Tityus, whose sin was a violent one against a powerful goddess, there is a special punishment, but in general there is merely a dead level of tedious, shadowy life. No hero in the Greek army at Troy had a better reputation than Achilles; none deserved a better fate in the world of the dead; and yet he finds no comfort there. When Odysseus says to him: "Than you, Achilles, no man was in former times more blessed, nor shall be hereafter; for formerly we Argives honored you like the gods, and now that you are here, you rule mightily among the dead; therefore do not grieve at death, Achilles," he replies, "Do not make light of death, glorious Odysseus. I would rather be on earth as the slave of another, of a poor man who has little livelihood, than rule over all the dead who have passed away."

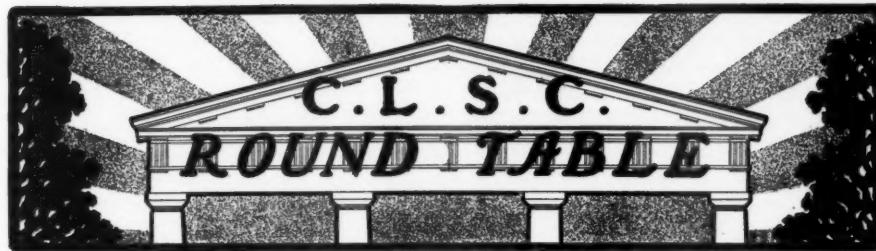
Rewards in the lower world for good lives on earth are not to be sought in the life hereafter. In exceptional cases, heroes may be exempt from death altogether, but such exemption is not a reward for goodness alone, but is due to special favor of the gods, as in the case of Menelaus, who was to pass to the Elysian field because he had Helen to wife and was the son-in-law of Zeus. Such views about the future life naturally made men turn their thoughts and energies to their earthly life. Whatever tended to temporal advantage was admissible and even laudable, so long as it involved no transgression against the gods. Earthly success made a man famous during life and even after death, but fame after death was valuable only in so far as the spirit in the lower world could hear of it and be pleased. To gain this end, that his shade might be admitted to the abode of the spirits, where it could meet the spirits of those who had died before him as well as of those who should die after him, it was necessary that the dead himself,—the body, that is, the real man as distinguished from his incorporeal spirit,—should meet with proper funeral rites. It was therefore an important duty for the surviving friends of any one who died to pay the last respects to the corpse and to offer funeral offerings. Just how the dead was benefited by offerings at the tomb is not made clear in the Homeric poems, but it is evident that the offerings were supposed to be of some use, and we are justified in assuming that libations and the blood of victims offered at the tomb were intended to pass down to the lower world, there to comfort the spirit.

With such views of the gods, of human life, and of death, it is natural that Odysseus should not be a man of the highest type of spiritual worth. That he was as excellent as we find him is due in part, to be sure, to his belief in the gods, but more to his innate moderation, to his respect for Themis, the impersonation of established right, before whose greatness both gods and men must bow.

*End of
Required Reading.*

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Homer's "Iliad." Homer's "Odyssey." Mahaffy, "Social Life in Greece," Chapters II. and III. (Macmillan, 1877). R. C. Jebb, "Introduction to Homer," Chapter II.



COUNSELORS OF THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

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THE THINKING HABIT.

One of the best things that we get from the study of history is the habit of looking below the surface and seeing how the daily life of a people once influenced the life of their country, and how this in turn has affected the times in which we live. Our studies this year illustrate this fact in a very interesting way. We are far enough removed from the democracy of old Greece and the confused struggles of the French Revolution to see some of the elements of their success or of their failure. On the other hand, "The Rivalry of Nations" plunges us into present-day problems of which the real significance cannot be seen. Just at this point, however, some of us realize painfully that we cannot profit by the lessons of history unless we can remember enough of the main facts to give us a basis for thought, and here, alas, is our weak point. If we could but remember things, how agreeable and stimulating we might be both to ourselves and to others! Now, although most of us are people of only average ability, it is certainly our privilege to learn to use what we have in a way that will make life interesting, and Professor James in his "Talks to Teachers" seems to offer a clue when he says:

"The secret of a good memory is thus the secret of forming diverse and multiple associations with every fact we care to retain. But this forming associations with a fact, — what is it but thinking *about* the fact as much as possible?"

It is plain, then, that to plow deep "furrows in our brains" we must let our thoughts travel backwards and forwards over the same field many times, and perhaps we cannot start these trains of thought better than by trying to look at old facts in the

light of new ones. For instance, when we study the Greek theater, let us compare it with those with which we are familiar. What would most surprise *Eschylus* if he could attend a performance of "Hamlet"? Would Pericles's ideas of democratic government make him a good mayor for one of our cities? Is the nearest modern type of Socrates a minister, a college professor, a social settlement worker, or what? Are any statesmen of the Themistocles type in foreign politics today? Did Greek oligarchies resemble modern trusts in any way? Was there anything resembling our Balkan question in the days of the Persian wars? Let us try this plan, and see if it does not make some of the most far-away facts of history interesting and significant.



FROM THE PRESIDENT OF THE CLASS OF 1901.

*To the Fellow-members of the Class of 1901,
Cordial Greeting :*

We may wish each other not only a happy New Year, but a happy entrance into the twentieth century.

Our class, of all classes in the history of Chautauqua, has the honor of leading the procession into a new century. No other class has had that privilege. No other class of those living today will ever have that privilege. I doubt not that all of the comrades of our class are looking forward to next summer as the best season in the history of Chautauqua. Let us realize the honor and the influence of our position, and let each one raise the standard high, so that our "Twentieth Century Class" will be known by all who have preceded or who will follow, as leading in loyalty, in generosity, in good fellowship.

With a Pan-American Exposition close by, with a specially delightful "new century program" at Chautauqua, let us hope that every member of the Class of 1901 will march through the Golden Gate next August, and meet for a friendly hand-grasp in our own special room of the C. L. S. C., furnished and completed and without debt. Send in your gifts; if you are behind in the reading course, catch up now; make your plans to spend several weeks at dear old Chautauqua next summer. Sincerely yours,

WILLIAM SEAMAN BAINBRIDGE.

A HISTORIC CLUBHOUSE.

C. L. S. C. Alumni Hall at Chautauqua is a clubhouse of a unique character. At



ALUMNI HALL, SHOWING CLASS ROOM OF 1901.

present the home of no fewer than nineteen C. L. S. C. classes, each year it extends its friendly hospitality to one more; for the eight rooms into which the building is divided seem capable of almost indefinite expansion, and three classes dwell quite as harmoniously in one room as did two in the earlier days. The plan of the building was devised so as to distribute the expense through a number of years; the early classes therefore paid for the framework, the later ones for the interior finishing of the rooms, and the present classes are helping to finish the halls and banqueting room, add piazzas and other useful and attractive features. Probably no clubhouse on the planet represents the devoted gifts of so large a number of members, who, scattered as they are today in all parts of the world, look back to the delightful social

hours spent in its historic halls. Men and women whose names stand for leadership in the world's life have been welcomed as honored guests under the roof of Alumni Hall, and these associations will be further enriched during the coming years.

The proper completion and preservation of the building calls for a payment of three hundred and fifty dollars from each class, but as this amount may be paid during the five summers from the year of organization to the year of graduation, the amount is easily raised, and all that is necessary is a clear understanding of the need, and a little enthusiasm which is sure to grow as the class spirit develops. The Class of 1901 raised a goodly proportion of this fund in the summer of '97, additions have been made during the later summers and this year, when the class will be largely represented, the remainder can easily be secured, and the class graduate with the inspiring consciousness of worthy achievements. The following letter from the class secretary and treasurer will be read with interest by all:

Dear Friends, Members of "The Twentieth Century Class," we send you greeting:

How swiftly are we nearing the second notable date in our life, as members of the great living C. L. S. C.! It seems not so long ago since the first of our meetings took place at our room at Alumni Hall, where under the benign influence of Bishop Vincent and Miss Kimball we organized and named ourselves, and joyfully turned our faces toward the new century.

It has been the privilege of a score of us, perhaps, to meet each succeeding year, but for you less fortunate ones who remember the class in its enthusiastic beginnings only, and the room so bare, unfinished and unfurnished, a brief description of it as it is today may be interesting.

The trustees used the funds placed in their hands by us at those early meetings with commendable promptness, and the result was a room beautifully plastered and finished in oak, wainscoted for about four feet in height, with a handsome oak mantel and fireplace, the latter the much-prized gift of a good friend of the class; notwithstanding which, and other generous gifts, a debt still rests between us and the trustees.

Gradually, however, suitable and graceful furniture has been put into place, dainty curtains, books and palms have added their charm; and last summer when over all was shed the soft brilliancy of the electric light, which had been put throughout Alumni Hall, we were jubilant indeed, and saw as a nearer vision our hope of making our room more than a class home in name merely, but something far more delightful and

personal, saw the fulfilling indeed of our old plan of a meeting-place for all "Twentieth Century Class" members in which to read, study, or rest as the mood serves.

It is impossible to close this letter without speaking of the class banner which is nearing a perfect completion under the hands of skilled workmen in New York City. The committee in charge, with knowing congratulatory smiles, assure me that it will far surpass all past achievements in "banner-art," and will be a fitting incentive to the new classes still to make notable the new century. I cannot describe it, but it is to be handsome, suitable, emblematic, and—expensive! What more need be said?

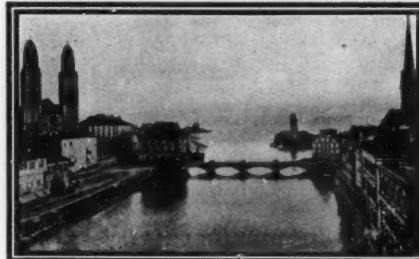
When we assemble at dear old Chautauqua next summer, we intend to call the roll of all those present at those first happy meetings in 1897. What a delightfully successful occasion it will be, if all are there to answer in 1901! Hopefully yours,

MRS. MARCUS W. JAMIESON,
Treasurer and Secretary of the Class of 1901.

We are indebted to a graduate of the Class of '91, Mrs. Sarah M. Steele, of Oakland, California, who visited Chautauqua in 1899, for the admirable photograph of Alumni Hall herewith reproduced. The room which the Class of 1901 shares with the Class of '93 is the first room on the ground floor at the right of the entrance. Why would it not be a good plan for some of the circles composed largely of 1901's who are sending delegates to graduate at Chautauqua this summer, to get up a closing entertainment, charge a small fee, and give perhaps half of the proceeds to Alumni Hall and the rest to some other fund in which they as a circle are interested?

THE CHAUTAUQUA VESPER SERVICE IN ZURICH.

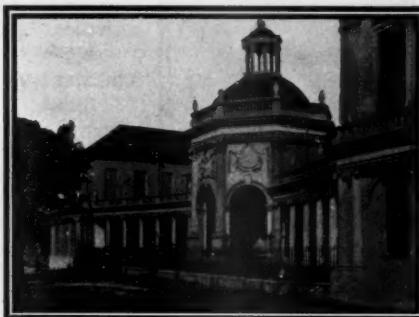
More than twenty-five years ago at Chautauqua the five o'clock hour on Sunday afternoon was set apart as the Vesper Hour, and a special service was prepared for it. Since



A VIEW OF ZURICH, SWITZERLAND.
(From "Annals of Switzerland," by Julia M. Colton. A. S. Barnes & Co.)

then this beautiful service with its characteristic hymn, "Day is Dying in the West," has been held at scores of Chautauquas and

in hundreds of churches throughout our country. It has been held on the wide ocean, and even carried into foreign lands; at one time conducted by Chancellor Vincent in the old Colosseum at Rome, and again by a little company of missionaries in Japan.



THE OLD ASSEMBLY ROOMS, SPANISH TOWN, JAMAICA.
(From "The West Indies," by A. K. Fiske. G. P. Putnam's Sons.)

It does not seem strange therefore to hear that in Zurich, Switzerland, it has been frequently observed during the closing months of the year 1900. At first it was held in the Gross Münster-Kapelle, then at the Hotel Bellevue, and later at the Methodist Episcopal Church on Promenadengarten. The services were under the direction of Chancellor Vincent, and the announcement of topics was as follows:

- Sept. 23. The Larger Life.
- Sept. 30. A Study in Language.
- Oct. 14. Education Out-of-school.
- Oct. 21. The Relation of Religion to Culture.
- Oct. 28. The Story of Chautauqua.
- Nov. 11. Service: "Nearer My God to Thee."
Topic of Address: "The Story of an American Saint."
- Nov. 25. Service: "Day is Dying in the West."
Topic of Address: "The Story of an English Skeptic."
- Dec. 2. Service: "Nearer My God to Thee."
Topic of Address: "The Law of the Unit."
- Dec. 9. Service: "Day is Dying in the West."
Topic of Address: "The Passing of the Century."

THE C. L. S. C. AT SPANISH TOWN.

The island of Jamaica in the West Indies is increasing in importance as a Chautauqua center. A little company of 1901 members has been studying at Stony Hill for the past four years. Individual readers have also reported at different times from Kingston. Recently a large circle has been formed at Spanish Town, the old capital of the island. The leader of the circle is an English clergy-

man connected with the cathedral of Spanish Town, and also headmaster of a graded school. The circle is starting its work with great enthusiasm, and it is hoped will give us in due time an account of its membership and activities.



CHICAGO AND ATHENS.

Many of our readers who visited the World's Fair in Chicago will recall a graceful little monument which stood close beside the Art Building. Possibly some of us may not have realized that this was a copy of one of the most famous monuments of old Greece.

MODEL OF MONUMENT OF LYSICRATES.

It has especial interest for us this month because of our study of the Greek theater, for this beautiful building commemorates the victory of Lysicrates in 335 B. C. with his chorus of boys in one of the choral competitions held in the city of Dionysia. These choral competitions, though held during the same festival, were quite distinct from the dramatic competitions. There were two of them, one between choruses of boys, and one between choruses of men. There were ten choruses in all, each furnished by one of the ten tribes of Attica. So, though the expense of the chorus was borne by one man and the prized tripod awarded to him, the glory belonged equally to the tribe. The monument of Lysicrates has escaped destruction perhaps from the fortunate circumstance that it was built into a Capucin convent, where it remained until 1821, when the building was burned. Tradition says that Lord Byron, who stayed at the convent, used the monument for a study. The purpose of the monument was apparently simply to serve as a splendid pedestal for the tripod which was set within the floral ornament on top. The tripod has disappeared, but the monument is cherished today as one of the most precious treasures of Greece.



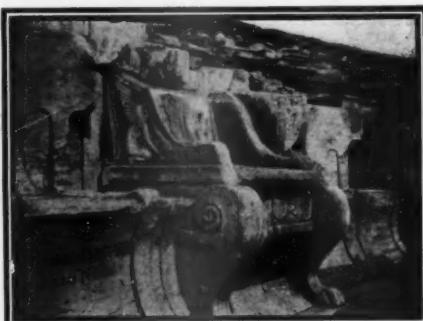
HOW TO LEARN GREEK MYTHOLOGY.

The characters and legends of Greek mythology form the background of so much Greek literature that an intimate acquaintance with them is of distinct advantage to the student of Greek life and letters. The game of "Greek Mythology" already mentioned presents in very convenient form for reference and for memorizing the names, attributes, and emblems of the different characters, with some mention of their most famous representations in art. A helpful feature of the game is the grouping of the characters according to their mythological affinities.



AN ANCIENT THEATER CHAIR.

In the Metropolitan Museum in New York, or in the Museum of Fine Arts in Boston may be seen a cast of the white marble chair once the privileged seat of the priest of Dionysus in the theater at Athens. The original chair as it stands today in the old theater, occupies a place at the middle point of the semi-circle of seats, on each one of which may still be seen the name of the dignitary to whom it belonged. The priest's chair is distinguished from the rest by its more elaborate design. On the back are carved two satyrs bearing bunches of grapes, and on each arm an exquisite little winged figure of a boy superintending a cock fight. The cock fight was, however, a more dignified occasion than with us, and in this case the figures are supposed to refer to the annual cock fight which was held at the theater in commemoration of the Persian wars. It is



CHAIR OF THE PRIEST OF DIONYSUS.

fortunate for us that during the vandalism of the middle ages the theater was buried so completely that even its location was lost. A coin in the British Museum finally cleared up the mystery, and in 1862 the excavators,

penetrating through more than twenty feet of soil, brought the theater once more into the light of day. Many of the beautiful marble seats seem almost as perfect as they were in the old days when the theater was crowded with an eager multitude and the chorus sang their parts in the great circle of the orchestra.

“THE HUMAN NATURE CLUB.”

In taking up the study of psychology under Dr. Thorndike's direction, our readers must not think of the theme as dry, abstract, or purely speculative. Psychology is the science of the thoughts and feelings which are part of the conscious life of every individual. The psychologist merely tries to find laws and principles in these mental facts. It is a fascinating study. It deals with realities. It strikes deep into the problems of personal character and of social life. The present widespread interest in psychological studies is significant. All questions are being regarded from the psychological point of view. There is a psychology of crime, of conscience, of fashion, of crowds; in short, there is a psychology of all the forces in which human thought and feeling play a part. Indeed, there is a psychology of animals. Scholars are making studies of the social habits of animals—their influence upon each other. The field, then, of psychology is co-extensive with consciousness throughout all nature. It is a practical study, bearing upon life at every point. We are confident that our readers will be greatly stimulated by the suggestive little book which Dr. Thorndike has prepared for them.

“Apathy can be overcome only by enthusiasm, and enthusiasm can only be aroused first by an ideal, which takes the imagination by storm, and second by a definite, intelligent plan for carrying that ideal out into action.”—Arnold Toynbee.

READING FOR READING'S SAKE.

This is a pitfall which is always likely to entrap any reader, however conscientious. We find that the members of “the human nature club” discovered that attention could be forced only for a short time. If it is not spontaneous, spurred on by our interest in a subject, it will soon flag. When this trouble confronts you, rest yourself and renew your interest by a short excursion into the dictionary. Here are some words which we find in our required reading this month. When we read aloud, can we pronounce them without embarrassment? Have we really grasped

their meaning? Do we know to what other peoples we are indebted for them?

Hoopoe (hoo'po). A name which comes from the Latin and characterizes a famous old-world bird, which is described as having a long, pointed, slightly curved bill and an erectile crest, dark gray in color, with black white-barred wings and tail.

Pan'ic. The Greek god Pan was supposed to have the power of causing sudden and unreasonable fear among his followers. Hence our word. But the word



COSTUME OF GREEK TRAGIC ACTORS.
(See page 655.)

“pan” in “Pan-American” comes from a different Greek source, namely, the adjective *pas*, meaning all.

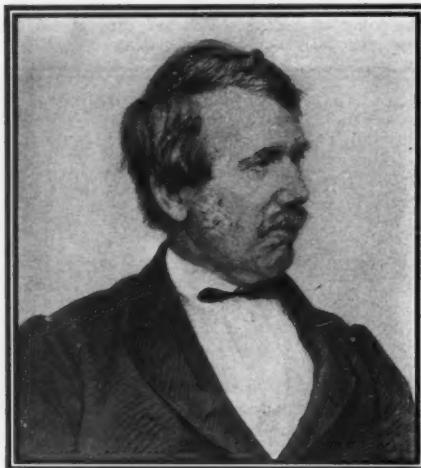
Hin'terland makes its appearance in the Rivalry articles. It is a compound of two German words, *hinter*, behind, and *land*, land. It has proved such a useful word to express compactly the idea of a region lying behind another that the later editions of our dictionaries are admitting it.

Strategic takes us back to the title of a Greek general, *strategos*, from *stratos*, army, and *ago*, to lead. So strategy is the art of war as developed by the strategos and a strategic position one which could be defended successfully or could be made effective in carrying out the plans of a leader.

Democracy, Oligarchy, and Autocracy are handed down to us from Greece: *Demos*, people, and *kratos*, strength: government by the people. *Oligos*, few, and *archos*, rule: a government where a few privileged persons held all the power. *Autos*, self, and *kratos*, strength, combined make the autocrat, who ruled by virtue of his own strength.

Paganism. The Latin word *pagus* meant country, and *paganus*, a peasant or dweller in the country. The word was applied to an idol-worshiper in the Roman empire in the early Christian centuries, the pagans or rustics being the last reached by the gospel.

Min'aret. From the Arabic. The accent on the first syllable will surprise some of us who have been in the habit of placing the accent at the end. The Century, Standard, and Webster, however, leave us no alternative, and we must accept this Arabic immigrant on its own terms. The old meaning of the word was lighthouse.



DAVID LIVINGSTONE.

THE STORY OF A GREAT LIFE.

" Then let us pray that come it may —
As come it will for a' that —
When man to man, the wold o'er,
Shall brothers be for a' that." — *Burns.*

The study of African problems this month in the Rivalry articles recalls the life and work of that original genius and hero, David Livingstone. Few biographies possess greater charm than his. Many a boy has been inspired to the best development of his powers by reading the life of that other boy who began work in a factory at ten years of age, yet managed to continue his education so that before he was sixteen he read Virgil and Horace with ease, and delved into the book of nature on his own account. The story of Livingstone's life reads like a romance, yet struggle and disappointment and ill health often baffled him. In the early days of his African work in relieving distress among the natives, he wrote: "I know that if I gave much attention to medicine and medical studies, something like a sort of mania which seized me soon after I began the study of anatomy would increase and, I fear, would gain so much power over me as to make me perhaps a very good doctor but a useless drone of a missionary. I feel the

self-denial this requires very much, but it is the only real sacrifice I have been called on to make, and I shall try to make it willingly." Years after, when his painstaking scientific study of Africa had mapped out the hitherto unknown regions of the Dark Continent, and his personal charm as a Christian missionary had given him marvelous influence over the black races, Stanley wrote of him, " You may take any point in Dr. Livingstone's character and analyze it carefully and I will challenge any man to find fault with it." In the " English Men of Action Series," Thomas Hughes, the famous author of " Tom Brown," tells the story of Livingstone. The volume is small; one could almost read it through in a single Sunday afternoon. Those who do not know this little classic are reminded of the pleasure which awaits them.

" Only That which made us, meant us to be mightier
by and by
Set the sphere of all the boundless heavens within the
human eye.
Sent the shadow of Himself the boundless, thro' the
human soul;
Boundless inward, in the atom, boundless outward, in
the whole." — *Tennyson.*

INDIVIDUAL READERS.

A member living in an isolated region in Maine writes when returning her memoranda: " If I fail to receive the required eighty per cent, the reward is in the doing, and I shall feel that I have done at least something in making the attempt. I am a solitary reader, lacking the stimulus of a circle, growing discouraged many times, yet Chautauqua has done me untold good, giving me an outlook upon a broader plane after the cares of a day spent in a country schoolroom."

Another teacher in a larger field of work graduated in the Class of '99. In sending her final report she wrote: " Though many times I have almost despaired of completing my work, yet I am very thankful that I have struggled through all difficulties and at last come off conqueror. I have been wonderfully benefited by the course. Not only have I been helped intellectually in a broad sense, but can thank my Chautauqua study for passing at a very high per cent two difficult teachers' examinations."

PICTURES FOR STUDY PURPOSES.

The Perry Pictures (one cent each) are now so widely known that circles hardly need to be reminded of their value in supplementing the illustrations already provided in the C. L. S. C. books and *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*. Prang's platinettes are larger, and offer a different and very effective style of illustration also at a very low price (five cents each). The Elson Prints are ten cents each, but they are printed in a delicate brown tint on

a fine quality of rough paper, and are worth the difference in price. At present they include only Greek and Roman architecture, Greek sculpture and Egyptian architecture, but others are in preparation. Readers who are not familiar with these various types of illustration will do well to send ten cents to each publisher, and secure specimens. (The Perry Picture Company, Tremont Temple; A. W. Elson & Company, 146 Oliver street; Prang Educational Company, all of Boston, Massachusetts.

A CORRECTION.

The announcement of games published in the January CHAUTAUQUAN seems to have been a little misleading. The games of cities and foreign characters are seventy-five cents each, and the game of the world one dollar. "Greek Mythology" and "Some Sevens in Greece" are each fifty cents. Orders may be sent to the Chautauqua Office. The demand for these games is a pleasant evidence that the circles are quick to improve their opportunities.

OUTLINE OF READING AND PROGRAMS.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

YRANT DAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

LANIER DAY—February 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Sunday after first Tuesday.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

FEBRUARY 25—MARCH 4—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 20. The Inner Life of The Chevalier Bayard.

Required Book: Homer to Theocritus. Chaps. 6 and 7 (to page 156).

MARCH 4—11—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: A Reading Journey in the Orient. The Inner Life of Odysseus.

Required Book: The Human Nature Club. Chaps. 1, 2, and 3.

MARCH 11—18—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Rivalry of Nations. Chaps. 21 and 22.

Required Book: Homer to Theocritus. Chap. 7 (concluded).

MARCH 18—25—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Rivalry of Nations. Chaps. 23 and 24.

Required Books: Grecian History. Chap. 10. Homer to Theocritus. Chap. 8.

MARCH 25—APRIL 1—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Critical Studies in French Literature: The Short Story in France.

Required Books: Grecian History. Chap. 11 (to page 187). Homer to Theocritus. Chap. 9. The Human Nature Club. Chaps. 4 and 5.

APRIL 1—8—

Required Books: Grecian History. Chap. 11 (concluded). Homer to Theocritus. Chap. 10. The Human Nature Club. Chaps. 6, 7, and 8.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

In the notes on page 655 a selection is given from Haigh's "The Attic Theatre." Circles which have library facilities and can secure this book will find it full of most interesting information covering all aspects of the Greek theater. Attention is also called to some of the subjects suggested under the paragraph in the Round Table entitled "The Thinking Habit." These could be used very effectively as topics for debate or discussion in the circle.

FEBRUARY 25—MARCH 4—

1. Roll-call: A test of observation. Number of birds' nests noted by each member in his daily walk. (See Nature Study article in this number.)
2. Summary of Chapter 20 in "Rivalry of Nations."
3. Paper: The settlement of Cape Colony.
4. Character Study: Livingstone.
5. The story of Stanley's first and second expeditions.
6. Review of early Greek poets. One should be assigned to each member, who will find out all he can about the poet, and describe his work and character without giving his name.

7. Reading: Selections from Byron's "Childe Harold," with the story of the poem.
8. Game of Greek quotations. Twenty-five of these should be prepared beforehand and numbered. Each member being provided with pencil and paper, sets down twenty-five numbers, and as the leader reads the quotation, gives the name of the author. Or the circle may choose sides and taking a larger number of quotations, see which side can hold out the longer. A wreath of laurel would be an appropriate recognition of the victor.

MARCH 4-11—

- Quiz and discussions on Chapters 1, 2, and 3 of "The Human Nature Club." (Professor James classes the chief "native reactions" as fear, love, curiosity, imitation, emulation, ambition, pugnacity, pride, ownership, constructiveness, etc. It will be suggestive to take up these in turn and see how the child's development may best be helped by utilizing them wisely. The differences between the "native reactions" of children and of the lower animals will also bring out some interesting facts bearing upon the higher nature of man.)
- Quiz on article on Constantinople.
- Papers: Chrysostom and His Times; Justinian I. and His Work.
- Reading: Description of the Hippodrome. (See Grosvenor's "Constantinople.")
- Map Review: Famous places in medieval Constantinople.
- Roll-call: Reports of existing antiquities: The Cisterns; The Aqueduct of Valens; The Tower of Galata; The City Walls; The Prison of Anemas.
- Reading: Selection from Grosvenor's description of St. Sophia.

MARCH 11-18—

- Map Review of European claims in Africa.
- Paper: Leopold of Belgium.
- Reading: Selection from "Tropical America," Henry Drummond. Or "The Story of Fashoda." (See "The Fashoda Incident," Winston Spencer Churchill, *North American Review*, Dec., 1898; also *The Outlook*, Oct. 22, 1898, page 462, Nov. 19, 1898, page 709, or "The First Crossing of Africa," *The World's Work*, Jan., 1901.)
- Character Study: Alexander Mackay, of Uganda. (See his life by his sister.)
- Roll-call: Quotations from Æschylus, with a brief account of the events to which they relate.
- Discussion of the play of "Agamemnon": Those who can should secure and read the entire play; for the others the outline given by Professor Caps will answer. The following points may be assigned to different members and then discussed by the circle: Instances of picturesque description. Dramatic contrasts which heighten the effect of the play. Allusions to customs of everyday life. Æschylus' power in the delineation of character. Contrasts between the different characters. Ideas of right and wrong. The position of the gods in relation to human affairs. The influence of destiny. Professor Campbell says: "Æschylus is no pessimist, though some of his chief persons are surrounded with gloom. . . . He dwells on those features of each legend which are most calculated to impress on the spectator the realities in which he believed—pride, not merely prosperity, preparing downfall; sin leading to retribution either soon or late; the curse of heredity not irredeemable, but even when it falls giving scope for the display of moral grandeur."

MARCH 18-25—

- Roll-call: Reports on article on French and Greek in the various colleges of this country, each member being assigned one college. (See page 581 of this magazine.)
- Summary of Chapters 23 and 24 in "The Rivalry of Nations."
- Discussion: What is "A True American Policy" toward foreign nations?
- Review with map of Chapter 10, Grecian History.
- Reading: Selections from "The Attic Theater."

Haigh. (See also page 655 of this magazine.) 6. For circles which cannot secure an entire play for discussion the following plan of study will be found interesting: Assign to several members the selections from the plays which are given, and let each bring in notes upon the passage studied, calling attention to the teachings which they contain, the ideas concerning life, concerning the hereafter, allusions to customs, to nature, etc., and emphasizing passages especially worthy to be memorized.

MARCH 25-APRIL 1—

- Roll-call: Paragraphs in Highways and Byways.
- Character Study: The rich men of Athens and their service to the state. (See note on page 655. Also Abbott's and Holm's histories on the age of Pericles, and "The City State of the Greeks and Romans," Fowler.)
- Reading: Selection from "The Story of a Michigan Farm." (See page 594 of this magazine.)
- Paper: How did Euripides regard Woman? (See Mahaffy's "Greek Literature," his "Social Life in Greece," and Symond's "Greek Poets.")
- A Study of Euripides: Either on the plan suggested for Sophocles or by taking a single play, as "The Alcestis," and noting the following points: The striking scene between Apollo and Death. The description of the farewell of Alcestis. The contrast between Alcestis and Admetus. How is the heroism of Alcestis heightened by the character of her husband? What sharp contrast is effected by the scene with Heracles? How far does the element of voluntary sacrifice enter into other plays of the poet? To what extent in this and other plays does he make use of long narrative passages? Note illustrations of the fact that in Euripides "the tone and feeling of his personages come very near to the men and women of his own time."
- Quiz: Discussion of Chapters 4 and 5 in "The Human Nature Club."
- Sense Tests: 1. Matching colors. 2. Tasting small quantities of substances without seeing them. 3. Smelling. Different well-known liquids may be placed in bottles of similar shape and size, and each member of the company be allowed a moment only to determine from the odor what the liquid is. 4. Try also the test of sight as given on page 50.

APRIL 1-8—

- Paper: The Parthenon: Its history, some peculiarities of its construction, its condition today. (See "New Chapters in Greek History"; Baedeker's "Greece"; "Mythology and Monuments of Ancient Athens," Harrison; Tarbell's "Greek Art," and the larger Greek histories.)
- Reading: Selections from "How a Riddle of the Parthenon was Unravelled" (*Century Magazine*, June, 1897), or "The Parthenon by Moonlight," (See "In Palestine," R. W. Gilder;) or "Modern Athens," (Scribner's, Jan., 1901.)
- Quiz on the general features of Greek comedy.
- Discussion of the play of "The Birds"; note the following points: Aristophanes in many of his plays worked out at once the project of the principal actor and then developed comic situations by the introduction of some stray visitor. Compare the "Wasps," "Birds," "Peace," "Plutus," and "Acharnians." He often explains the plot at the outset either in soliloquy or dialogue; find examples of this. The poet was an aristocrat and satirized the middle and lower classes. His satires are chiefly directed

against middle-aged rather than young men. 6. Roll-call: Answered by each giving an instance of his or her own spontaneous train of thought as suggested in Chapter 8. This might be followed profitably by similar experiences with a controlled train of thought.

5. Quiz and discussion of Chapters 6, 7, and 8 of "The Human Nature Club."

TRAVEL CLUB PROGRAMS.

Constantinople is so rich in historical associations and in present objects of interest that the following programs can do little more than suggest lines of study which many students will want to follow out in greater detail with the help of the bibliography recommended. Grosvenor's "Constantinople" offers a rare opportunity for securing a wide acquaintance with the many aspects of the wonderful city. Students who have Timayenis's "History of Greece" will find in the second volume a brief yet comprehensive account of the history of the Byzantine emperors. In the back of Professor Grosvenor's book is a chronological table of all the rulers of the city, very helpful in fixing in mind their relation to each other. Frequent map reviews will help to make students familiar with the localities described. Circles might trace some of the more important maps in Grosvenor's work, and so provide each member with a copy for reference.

First week —

1. Roll-call: Reports on famous classic localities passed by the tourist in approaching Constantinople through the Hellespont.
2. Paper: Byzantium before the Constantine conquest.
3. Reading: Description of the serpent of Delphi. (Grosvenor's "Constantinople," Vol. I., pp. 381-3.) Also from "A Personally Conducted Arrest in Constantinople." F. Hopkinson Smith (*Century Magazine*, March, 1896).
4. Character Study: Constantine the Great.
5. Reading: Description of the Column of Constantine. (See Grosvenor's "Constantinople," Vol. I., pp. 374-7.)
6. Papers: The Empire from Julian to Justin I.; Chrysostom.
7. Map Review: Reports of the famous palaces of medieval Constantinople.

Second Week —

1. Roll-call: Reports on existing antiquities; The Aqueduct of Valens, The Baths of Constantine, The Cisterns.
2. Book Review: "The Prince of India," with reading of the rescue of Lael.
3. Paper: The reign of Justinian.
4. Reading: The Revolt of Nika, and The Triumph of Belisarius. (Grosvenor's "Constantinople," Vol. I., pp. 340-3.)
5. Reports on the Hippodrome: Its Architecture; Its Art Treasures; Its Sports; The Kathisma and Its Associations; Historic Events in the Hippodrome.
6. Paper: The empire from Justinian to the Crusades.

Third Week —

1. Roll-call: Reports on characteristic scenes of present-day life in Constantinople.
2. Reports on existing antiquities: Three Ancient Palaces; The Tower of Galata; The Prison of Anemas.
3. Reading: Selection from account of the fall of Constantinople. (See "The Byzantine Empire," Oman. "A War Correspondent at the Fall of Constantinople," *Cosmopolitan*, November, 1892.)
4. Papers: Galata and the Genoese; Pera; The Walls of Constantinople; Eyoub and the Golden Horn.
5. Reading: Selection from Crawford's "Constantinople," or Mrs. Wallace's "Along the Bosphorus."
6. Paper: The Ottoman Turks. (See bibliography.)

Fourth Week —

1. Roll-Call: Reports on objects of interest along the Bosphorus.
2. Papers: Sultan Abd-ul Hamid II.; Yildiz Kiosk; The Palace of Dolma Baghtcheh.
3. Reading: Selection from De Amicis's description of the palace of Dolma Baghtcheh.
4. Papers: Characteristics of Byzantine Art; The Church of St. Irene; The Church of St. Sophia, with selections from Grosvenor's chapter on it.
5. Reading: The story of Robert College. (See an admirable article in *Education* for September, 1890, also *Missionary Review*, November, 1900.) "A Woman's College in the Orient" (*Outlook*, January 5, 1901, also *New England Magazine*, March, 1898.)

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "GRECIAN HISTORY."

CHAPTER X. THE ATHENIAN EMPIRE.

1. How did Athens make common cause with the Asiatic Greeks after Mycale? 2. What stratagem enabled the Athenians to complete their city walls unmolested? 3. What circumstances led Sparta to withdraw from the federal fleet? 4. What was the Confederacy of Delos? 5. How did Themistocles incur the enmity of the Spartan power at Athens? 6. Trace the remainder of his career. 7. How did Athens become the tyrant of a maritime empire? 8. Describe Cimon's rise to power. 9. How did Sparta suffer at this time? 10. Why was Cimon overthrown? 11. What qualities of character gave to Pericles the leadership of Athens? 12. What allies did Athens draw away from Sparta? 13. Why were the long walls built at this time? 14. How did Athens secure the alliance of middle Hellas? 15. Why was the treasury of the naval league removed from Delos to Athens? 16. What was the "Peace of Callias"? 17. Why did Athens

make overtures for the thirty years' peace? 18. Why was Athens unable to keep the land league?

CHAPTER XI. TRIUMPHANT DEMOCRACY.

1. What two important changes in government were introduced at this time? 2. How did Pericles secure the good will of the people? 3. How did Athenian influence extend into other states? 4. What questionable use was made of the funds of the Delian League? 5. What controversy resulted? 6. How did Cimon begin to adorn the city? 7. What great buildings were undertaken by Pericles? 8. Describe the Parthenon. 9. How did the Piraeus differ from Athens? 10. How did the mental outlook of the Athenians change during this period? 11. Describe the rise of the drama at this time. 12. How is Greek prose connected with the rule of Pericles? 13. Give an account of the work of Phidias. 14. What was the nature of slavery in Athens? 15. Describe the condition of the leisure

class. 16. What was required in the education of boys? the wealthier citizens? 19. What was the Pan-Athenaic festival? 20. How did the rebellion of Samos show the weakness of the Athenian state?

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "HOMER TO THEOCRITUS."

CHAPTER VII. (from page 156). AESCHYLUS.

- From what sources almost entirely did the tragic poets take the subjects of their plays?
- Give the chief facts known in the life of *Aeschylus*.
- What gives him the right to the title of creator of Attic tragedy?
- How did he define the lines which tragedy was to follow in Greece?
- Give the outline of the story of *Aeschylus's "Agamemnon"*.
- Quote the prologue.
- What is the *Parodus* and what its purpose?
- Describe the first episode of the play.
- What is the *Stasimon*?
- Take up the succeeding episodes in order.
- What are the second and third members of the trilogy?
- Tell the story of these.
- What is the play of the "Persians"?
- Quote the description of the battle of Salamis.
- What legend forms the background of the "Seven Against Thebes"?
- What unique character does the "Prometheus Bound" possess?

CHAPTER VIII. SOPHOCLES.

- Give an account of the early life of Sophocles.
- What important innovations did he make in the art of the drama?
- How successful was he in his dramatic career?
- How does *Aeschylus's* method of treating his characters compare with that of Sophocles?
- Show the general attitude of *Aeschylus*, Sophocles, and Euripides respectively to the times in which they lived.
- Tell the story of the play of "Ajax".
- What two portions of it are especially famous?
- What is the story of the "Electra"?
- Quote some of the famous lines from this play.
- Give the story of "Philoctetes".
- How does the play, "The Women of Trachis", differ from other plays of Sophocles?
- What are the greatest of the tragedies of Sophocles?
- Tell the story of the first of these.
- How does the chorus in this play emphasize the majesty of law?
- What peculiar style of dialogue is frequently employed in Greek tragedy?
- Where is the scene of the second play laid?
- What famous ode constitutes one of its most beautiful passages?
- What incidents throughout the two tragedies illustrate the noble character of *Oedipus*?
- Give the story of Antigone.
- What qualities entitle her to the distinction of "the most perfect female character in Greek poetry"?

CHAPTER IX. EURIPIDES.

- Give the chief facts in the life of Euripides.
- How did the Athens of Euripides's day differ from that of *Aeschylus*?
- How did the genius of Euripides meet these demands?
- How is his popularity shown?
- How far was his influence felt by later poets?
- How does Mrs. Browning characterize him?
- How many of his plays survive?
- How did he succeed in the competitions as compared with Sophocles and *Aeschylus*?
- What is the story of the "Alcestis"?
- Quote some

- of the fine passages of the "farewell."
- Describe the "Medea."
- What picture of woman's position is presented in this play?
- Select passages from the tragedies thus far studied showing the Greek view of the under world.
- What plays of Euripides are based upon the story of Iphigeneia?
- Quote from Iphigeneia's entreaty.
- Compare the different methods used by the three great poets in their treatment of the *Electra*.
- What incidents form the background of the play of the "Trojan Women" and the "Hecabe"?
- Quote from the noble description of the death of Polyxena.
- What legend concerning Helen did Euripides make use of?
- How does Euripides's play of the "Phoenician Women" differ from the treatment given this subject by *Aeschylus* and Sophocles?
- Quote the description of Ares in this play.
- What extremes of tragedy are presented in the play of *Heracles*?
- Quote some of the reflections upon life found in the illustrative ode from this play.
- What is the story of the "Bacchanals"?

CHAPTER X. COMIC POETRY. ARISTOPHANES.

- What was the origin of Greek comedy?
- What changes seem to have been introduced by Susarion of Megara?
- Who was the real founder of comedy, and how did he accomplish it?
- When did comedy become important at Attica?
- How did the number of actors and of the chorus compare with those of tragedy?
- What were the three great periods of comedy?
- What subjects were used for comic purposes?
- Who were the chief poets of the old comedy?
- What influence did Cratinus exert upon this old comedy?
- How did Eupolis differ from him?
- What is known of Aristophanes?
- What forms were introduced into comedy differing from those in tragedy?
- When and where was the comedy of "The Birds" produced?
- What description of life in Athens is given in the opening of the play?
- What proposition is made to the Hoopoe?
- Quote from the bird calls which follow.
- What is the plan developed by Peithetas?
- What is the subject of the first part of the parabasis?
- Quote the selection given from the second part.
- What short episodes follow?
- What is the subject of the second parabasis?
- Describe the interview with Prometheus.
- What is the result of the peace commission which follows?
- How do the plays of "Peace" and the "Acharnians" respectively illustrate the desire for peace with Sparta?
- What three plays satirize women and in what way?
- Quote the song by the chorus of women in the "Thesmophoriazusae".
- What is the subject of the "Knights"?
- In what play is Socrates burlesqued and why?
- What is the subject of the "Wasps"?
- Describe the "Frogs".
- What striking contrast is shown in the chorus of the "Initiated"?

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "THE HUMAN NATURE CLUB."

CHAPTERS I., II., AND III. WHAT THE BRAIN DOES. THINGS WE DO WITHOUT LEARNING. DIFFERENT WAYS OF LEARNING.

- What do we mean by brain cells?
- What is the chief business of a brain cell?
- Why do people act differently under the same circumstances? Illustrate.

- How are we able to do things without thinking?
- Illustrate the fact that many things are done by man and animals without being learned.
- What is the reason for this?
- What is meant by the animal method of learning?
- Illustrate this in the case of animals.
- What causes the strengthening or weakening of the nerve connections?
- How early does

this animal method of learning appear in the development of the child? 11. By what two other methods do human beings learn from others?

CHAPTERS IV. AND V. OUR SENSES. THE INFLUENCE OF PAST EXPERIENCE.

1. What is meant by the statement that human life consists of a multitude of reactions to sensations? Illustrate. 2. How are our actions dependent upon the presence or absence of a sense? 3. How are they affected by the absence or presence of some special function of a sense? 4. How on the range covered by a sense? 5. How on the delicacy of discrimination? 6. What are complementary colors? 7. How may our sensation of a thing be dependent upon its surroundings? 8. How are we made conscious of our sensations? 9. For what different reasons may any one set of sensations be made to cease? 10. How are the reactions of two people in the same circumstances affected by the general bias of their minds? 11. How by the special

training of the mind in a given direction? 12. How by ideas which they possess for the time being?

CHAPTERS VI., VII., AND VIII. ATTENTION. MEMORY. TRAINS OF THOUGHT.

1. What are the general conditions of our minds when we are giving attention? 2. What makes some ideas more predominant in our minds than others? 3. How can we cultivate voluntary attention, and why should we? Illustrate. 4. How can we increase our capacity for involuntary attention? 5. Why does one idea call up another? 6. What four conditions determine which idea is likely to be recalled first? 7. What is the reason for the difference in general retentiveness of different people? 8. Can general retentiveness be improved? 9. How then can people improve in their mental attainments? 10. How does thinking upon a subject develop memory? 11. What explanation is suggested for the fact that old people forget recent things and recall old memories?

NOTES ON GREEK HISTORY AND THE DRAMA.

THE USE OF PUBLIC MONEY AT ATHENS.

The expenditure of public money upon public works is justifiable so long as the works are needed, and the money spent upon them is furnished by those who vote it away. Nothing could be more creditable to himself or to the city than the proposal of Themistocles to devote the surplus arising from the mines of Laureion to the building of ships, and the fortification of the Piræus. And, again, there are fewer acts which we contemplate with greater satisfaction than the generosity of the rich in adorning their cities with beautiful works of art. But it is quite another matter when public works are instituted in order to provide subsistence for those who would otherwise find it difficult to obtain employment, or at least to obtain it on such remunerative terms; when the money so spent is taken from sources contributed for other objects; or when a rich man allows his wealth to become a means of pauperizing and corrupting his fellow-citizens. In these matters the Athenians—and indeed the Greeks altogether—were partly in advance of us, and partly behind us. They were in advance of us in so far as the rich men in Greek cities were generous to a degree which we do not expect to find among our own citizens. To spend a large fortune in acquiring things of beauty for his private gratification, was a use of money of which a Greek would have been incapable. His vanity, not to speak of any higher motive, would have prevented it. On the other hand, the Greeks had no idea of public finance. They had not discovered the art of creating national debts, which appears to be the chief business of the modern financier; and they dealt with a surplus in a rough and ready manner, giving back in some way or another to the people anything that was left over at the year's end, without any thought of the demoralization caused by such expenditure. It is with the greatest hesitation that Demosthenes—a century after Pericles—ventures to suggest that those who receive the public money should do something for the public service.—Abbott's "*History of Greece*."

THE TRAGIC ACTOR.

The practise of the Greeks in regard to tragic costume was totally opposed to all modern notions upon the subject. Historical accuracy and archaeological minuteness in the mounting of a play were matters of supreme indifference to the Greeks. Though the scenes of most of their tragedies were laid in heroic times, they never made the slightest attempt to reproduce

upon the stage an accurate representation of the costume of the Homeric period. On the other hand, they were not content that the heroes and gods of their tragedy should appear upon the scene in the costume of ordinary life, as was formerly the case in our modern theaters. Greek tragedy was essentially ideal: the existence it depicted was far above the level of everyday life. Even when the subject of a tragedy was taken from contemporary history, as in the case of the "*Persians*" of Æschylus, the treatment was ideal. In the "*Persians*" of Æschylus no Greek statesmen or generals are introduced upon the stage, or even mentioned by name. The scene is laid far away in Persia; the characters are all Persian; everything common and familiar is banished out of sight. Such being the tone of Greek tragedy, the costume of ordinary life would have been out of keeping. A special dress was invented, similar to that of common life, but more flowing and dignified. The garments were dyed with every variety of brilliant color. The bulk of the actor was increased by padding his chest and limbs, and placing huge wooden soles under his feet. Masks were employed in which every feature was exaggerated, to give superhuman dignity and terror to the expression. In this way a conventional costume was elaborated, which continued for centuries to be the regular dress of the tragic actors. All the leading characters in a Greek tragedy were dressed in this fashion, with only slight variations and additions, such as particular circumstances required.

In no respect is the difference between the ancient and the modern actor more conspicuous than in the use of masks. The invention of the tragic mask was ascribed to Thespis. At the commencement of his career as an actor Thespis is said to have merely painted his face with white lead or purslane. Later on he employed masks; but these were of a very simple character, consisting simply of linen, without paint or coloring.

Æschylus was the first to employ painted masks, and to portray features of a dreadful and awe-inspiring character. By several writers Æschylus is regarded as the inventor of the tragic mask, and to a certain extent this view is correct, since it was Æschylus who first gave the tragic mask that distinctive character, from which in later times it never varied except in detail. . . . The use of masks is indissolubly connected with the style and character of Greek tragedy. Without masks it would have been impossible for one actor to play several parts, or for men to play the parts of women. Of course the Greek actor had no opportunity of displaying those

powers of facial expression which are one of the chief excellencies in modern acting. It was only by his gestures that he could emphasize the meaning of what he had to say: his features remained immovable. But niceties of facial expression would have been entirely lost in the vast expanse of a Greek theater. The tragic mask, on which were depicted in bold and striking lines the main traits in the character represented, was really much more effective, and could be seen by the most distant spectator. Then again it must have been difficult, if not impossible, for a Greek actor to delineate finely drawn shades of individual character. The masks necessarily ran in general types, such as that of the brutal tyrant, the crafty statesman, the suffering maiden, and so on. The acting would have to correspond. It would be difficult to imagine the part of Hamlet acted in a mask. But the characters of Greek tragedy were mostly types rather than individuals. The heroes and heroines were drawn in broad general outlines, and there was little attempt at delicate strokes of character-painting. The use of masks no doubt helped to give this particular bent to Greek tragedy. . . . The tragic costume, as finally settled by Aeschylus, was in many respects not unlike that worn by the hierophants and torch-bearers who officiated at the Eleusinian mysteries. According to one tradition the similarity was due to the priests having copied the dress of the tragic actors in later times. But it is much more probable that the very reverse was the case, and that Aeschylus, in the course of his innovations, borrowed some hints from the dress of the priests. . . . The object of Aeschylus was to devise a costume that should be suitable to the heroes and gods and supernatural beings with which his stage was peopled. . . . For this purpose he employed

various devices. Among them was the cothurnus, or tragic boot, the aim of which was to increase the stature of the actors, and to give them an appearance of superhuman grandeur. It was a boot with a wooden sole of enormous thickness attached to it. The wooden sole was painted in various colors. . . . The cothurnus varied in height according to the dignity and position of the wearers, a king, for instance, being provided with a larger cothurnus than a mere attendant. In this way the physical stature of the persons upon the stage was made to correspond to their social position. . . . The cothurnus was rather a clumsy contrivance, and it must have been somewhat inconvenient to walk with. The tragic actor had to be very careful to avoid stumbling upon the stage. Lucian says that accidents were not infrequent. Aeschines met with a misfortune of this kind as he was acting the part of Enomaeus at Collytus. In the scene where Enomaeus pursues Pelope he tripped up and fell, and had to be lifted up again by the chorus-trainer Sannio. . . . The garments of the tragic actor were the same as the ordinary Greek dress, but their style and color were more magnificent. . . . As to the appearance which the tragic actor presented upon the stage, it is obvious that he must have been an impressive, though rather unnatural, figure. His large stature and bulky limbs, his harsh and strongly marked features, his tunic with its long folds and brilliantly variegated pattern, his mantle with its gorgeous colors, must have combined to produce a spectacle of some magnificence. . . . In the "Frogs" of Aristophanes Aeschylus is humorously made to declare that it is only right that the demigods of tragedy should wear finer clothes and use longer words than ordinary mortals.—"The Attic Theater," Haigh.

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS.

"A READING JOURNEY IN THE ORIENT."—FEBRUARY.

1. A charm to secure entrance or exit through any portal, especially to secure admission to some desired place or sphere. An allusion to the story in "The Arabian Nights" of Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves, in which the door to the treasure cavern opened only at the utterance of these words. ("That old enchanted Arabian grain, the sesame, which opens doors.")—Ruskin's "Sesame and Lilies." 2. A royal dynasty in Syria which reigned from 312 B. C. to about 64 B. C.; descended from Seleucus Nicator. 3. St. Gregory Nazianzenus, surnamed "Theologus," was one of the fathers of the Eastern Church. He was born at Nazianzenus in Cappadocia, about 325; died about 390. He was the leader of the orthodox party at Constantinople in 379 and was made Bishop of Constantinople in 380. 4. The Seljuk dynasties reigned from the eleventh to the thirteenth century. 5. Coal-tar dyes, the base of which, a colorless oily compound, is called aniline. Aniline was originally obtained in the distillation of indigo, but is now chiefly made from nitrobenzene. 6. A town of northern Italy near the Mediterranean coast north of Pisa. It is famous for the neighboring quarries of marble. 7. A medieval confederation of cities of northern Germany and adjacent countries, called the Hanse towns, at one time numbering about ninety, with affiliated cities in nearly all parts of Europe, for the promotion of commerce by sea and land, and for protection against pirates, robbers and hostile governments. At the height of its prosperity it exercised sovereign powers, made treaties and often enforced its claims by arms in Scandinavia, England, Portugal, and elsewhere. Its origin is commonly dated from a compact between Hamburg and Lübeck in 1241, although commercial unions of German towns had

existed previously. The league held triennial general assemblies (usually at Lübeck, its chief seat); and after a long period of decline and attempts at resuscitation, the last general assembly, representing six cities, was held in 1669. The name was retained, however, by the union of the free cities of Lübeck, Hamburg and Bremen, which are now members of the German empire.

"THE RIVALRY OF NATIONS."—FEBRUARY.

1. In 1877, by act of Parliament, though she was declared sovereign of India by parliamentary act of 1858. 2. In 1702 and 1774 the British made unsuccessful attempts to effect a settlement in Borneo; but it was not until the middle of the nineteenth century through the enterprise of Sir James Brooke that the English secured control of the northwestern coast. 3. The Congo Free State is a sovereign, independent, monarchical state in central Africa. It was created in 1885 by the general act of the Congo, signed by the great powers. Leopold II. of Belgium, who was declared its sovereign, turned his rights over to Belgium, and in 1890 Belgium acquired by treaty the right to annex the Congo Free State after ten years. The area of the Congo Free State is about 900,000 square miles; its population is estimated at from 15,000,000 to 30,000,000. 4. Cecil Rhodes was born in Hertfordshire, England, in 1853. He went to South Africa for his health, amassed a fortune in the Kimberley diamond-fields, became a member of the Cape Colony ministry in 1884, and prime minister in 1890. Leader of the party which aims at federation and independence of South African states; and the originator of the Cape-to-Cairo scheme. 5. Réunion is an island in the Indian ocean, southwest of Mauritius. Area, 780 square miles; population, 170,000. 6. 1547-1584.

TOPICS of the HOUR with CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS.

[Note.—In the daily deluge of books and articles the average reader is hopelessly overwhelmed. Complete lists of references to current magazines and recent volumes are of value only to specialists. The busy person who wishes to be reasonably conversant with the leading questions of the day has no time for wide reading, and is too likely to be discouraged by an exhaustive "bibliography." THE CHAUTAUQUAN will seek to serve its subscribers by calling attention each month to a list of representative books, and typical articles which deal with the different phases of some one topic of current interest. The Current Events Programs are prepared for the use of clubs, college and other literary societies, women's clubs and organizations desiring direction for current events courses.]

VI. FOREIGN MISSIONS.*

INTRODUCTORY.—The first problem that missions, especially foreign, had to face was the difficulty of getting an open door to heathen countries. When that was finally secured, the following period was a campaign of many years to arouse sufficient interest for volunteers to present themselves in numbers large enough to carry on the work. The Student Volunteer Movement has solved that difficulty. Adequate financial support was the third test of missionary zeal at home, but even this problem appears to be of the past, the great missionary boards being now able to obtain money for all needs. The age of romance, therefore, if such we may call it, is over. Plain, practical missionary service must now be studied, and so far as possible our attention must be directed toward the development of the best methods. It would be strange if the new century should not reveal the necessity of some important changes in methods of administration and forms of work on the field.

"Are Foreign Missions Doing any Good?" (Paul, Trench & Co., London, 1887.) A booklet of testimony from public men and government records regarding the sociological results of missions among the heathen.

Bliss, E. M. "Encyclopedia of Missions." (Funk & Wagnalls, 2 vols., New York, 1891.) Unequalled for facts on any phase of the question.

Clark, F. E. "Do Foreign Missions Pay?" (North American Review, Vol. CLXVI., p. 268.) Aside from religious value they have been worth the cost for results in geography, architecture, medicine, philology, and education.

Clarke, Wm. N. "A Study of Christian Missions." (Scribners, New York, 1900.) Refreshing discussion of the prospect of missions in the light of modern thought and experience.

Dennis, Jas. S. "Christian Missions and Social Progress." (Revell, 3 vols., New York, 1889.) Exhaustive treatment of social evils of non-Christian world, the ineffectual remedies of heathenism, the causes of this failure. Presents Christianity as social hope of the nations. Most useful and helpful book.

Dennis, Jas. S. "Foreign Missions after a Century." (Revell, New York, 1893.) Good survey of problems and success of missions, also of the controversies of Christianity with opposing religions.

Ellinwood, F. F. "Questions and Phases of Modern Missions." (Dodd, Mead & Co., New York, 1899.) Able discussion of hindrances, reflex influence on the church, the place of the higher education, etc.

Gandhi, V. R. "Why Christian Missions have failed in India." (Forum, Vol. XVII., p. 160.) Claims that Christianity is not as satisfactory a philosophy as the religions of India, and that the first Europeans injured the cause by their example of unholy living.

Graham, J. A. "Missionary Expansion Since the Reformation." (Revell, New York, 1893.) Graphic

and interesting sketch of the progress, viewed from a missionary's standpoint.

Johnston, H. H. "Are Our Foreign Missions a Success?" (Fortnightly, Vol. L.I., p. 481.) Indirect result has been remarkable in educating and humanizing savage peoples.

Laurie, Thos. "The Ely Volume." (A. B. C. F. M., Boston, 1885.) A treasure-house of facts relating to contributions of our foreign missionaries to science and human well being, along all lines of missionary enterprise.

Lowe, John. "Medical Missions." (Revell, New York, 1887.) Presents scope and power of medical missions. They enable the missionary to make an appeal on a double basis.

Mackenzie, W. D. "Christianity and the Progress of Man." (Revell, New York, 1897.) A handbook of the part missionaries have played in the development of uncivilized world. Helpful and interesting.

Merriam, E. E. "Foreign Missions in the Twentieth Century." (Review of Reviews, Vol. XXIII., p. 64, January, 1901.) Excellent summary of the lessons from the experience of the past century; the keynote of present critical missionary thought.

Martin, Chalmers. "Apostolic and Modern Missions." (Revell, New York, 1898.) Compares modern missions with apostolic in respect to principles, problems, methods, and results.

Pierson, A. T. "The Crisis of Missions." (Carter & Brothers, New York, 1886.) Belongs to the period when the laborers were too few, and the great impending problem was that of financial support.

Smith, Geo. "Short History of Christian Missions." (T. & T. Clark, Edinburg, 1897.) Convenient and good outline of missionary history from Paul to Carey. Smith, Judson. "Foreign Missions in the Light of Fact." (North American Review, Vol. CLXI., p. 21.) Defense of missions against the charge of poorly adapted methods and incapable management.

* "Party Government in England, France, and the United States" appeared in October. "Trusts" appeared in November. "Village Improvement Associations and Kindred Topics" appeared in December. "Divorce" appeared in January. "Race Problems in the United States" appeared in February.

Stock, E. "The Church Missionary Society: Financial Accounts." (*Fortnightly*, Vol. L., p. 774.) A most interesting reply to Canon Taylor's articles (listed below).

Strong, Josiah. "The New Era." (Baker & Taylor, New York, 1893.) Nineteenth century has been age of preparation for great progress in perfection of humanity, which will emerge largely through missions. A hopeful aspect of the future.

Taylor, Isaac. "The Great Missionary Failure" and

"Missionary Finances." (*Fortnightly*, Vol. L., pp. 488 and 581.) Study in the financing of the two great English missionary societies, finding success inadequate and largely visionary, the cause being wrong methods. These papers were a thunderbolt at missions.

Wishard, L. D. "A New Program of Missions." (Revell, New York, 1895.) Proposes making college centers for enlisting a force for the world's evangelization.

CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS.

First Week —

1. Reading: From "Foreign Missions in the Twentieth Century," Merriam (listed above).
2. Oration: The mistakes of missionaries.
3. Paper: (1) The Student Volunteer Movement. (2) What missions have done for women.
4. Debate: Resolved, That denominationalism is the greatest hindrance to success in missionary work.

Second Week —

1. Reading: From "Do Foreign Missions Pay?" by F. E. Clark (listed above).
2. Oration: Missionary Heroes.
3. Paper: (1) What missions have done for philology. (2) Compare Roman Catholic and Protestant missionary methods.
4. Debate: Resolved, That foreign missions have done more to extend civilization than militarism.

Third Week —

1. Reading: (1) From "The Great Missionary Fail-

ure," by Taylor (listed above). (2) Chapter from "The New Era," by Strong (listed above).

2. Oration: Missions the exponent of religious vitality.
3. Paper: (1) Medical Missions. (2) The college as a missionary center.
4. Debate: Resolved, That results of missionary labors in the nineteenth century justified the sacrifices entailed.

Fourth Week —

1. Reading: (1) Chapter on "Problem of Modern Missions," or (2) "Methods of Modern Missions," by Martin (listed above).
2. Oration: The Missionary as the Advance-Guard of Civilization.
3. Paper: (1) The ethical value of missions. (2) Some needed reforms in missionary methods.
4. Debate: Resolved, That missionary effort should be concentrated on the home field.

SOME PEN PICTURES OF CIRCLE LIFE BY MEMBERS OF THE C. L. S. C.

The following "pen pictures" have been received in response to the request of the editor for brief, comprehensive accounts of the lives of individual circles. They represent an interesting variety of types, and suggest the diverse forms which Chautauqua energy may take. Sometimes as a section of a department club, the circle is responsible for the literary standard of the organization; or as a church circle it fosters a junior home-study course for readers less advanced. Libraries are established, lone readers sought out and encouraged, isolated members written to regularly, and ministers, teachers, and others peculiarly qualified to help are given an opportunity to render service. It is worth noting that the attitude of every circle is that of looking forward. Complacent satisfaction can never be a characteristic of the true Chautauquan, for the goal always lies beyond.

AUGUSTA, GEORGIA.

One of the greatest of modern writers has said, "The happiest nations and the happiest women are those that have no history at all." If any analogy exists between nations, women, and Chautauqua circles, then our circle is certainly a happy one. It arose among us in a most quiet and unostentatious manner, in the autumn of 1892. It has lived with us ever since,

and some of the original members are still answering to their names.

In all these years there have been no startling events to record, no large public meetings, no social entertainments, and yet, like a happy woman without a history, the circle lives on, making life a pleasanter thing to those who come within its brightening and stimulating influence.

The course of reading is so sane and wholesome, and so well suited to all ages and tastes, that two years ago our membership began with a grandmother and ended with a *débutante*. There are sixteen of us, and we have a president, secretary, and treasurer, all elected for one year. It is true that our president (Mrs. J. R. Lamar) has been unanimously reelected, until she would fain have imitated old Governor Bradford and begged for "just one year off in which to attend to her own affairs." These are the times, however, "when a woman does more work in a day than a man can do in seven," and so we still have our president. We meet at twelve o'clock every Friday, and as each member's name is called by the secretary she answers, giving in a concise form all the information she possesses on some subject which bears on the lesson.

Naturally the attention of the circle has been called to China in the recent past. At one of the meetings our secretary, Mrs. Carlton Hillyer, became so thoroughly imbued with the spirit of the times that she forgot her English and brought her minutes in "heathen Chinese" lingo. That morning there was much "talkee, talkee," and "velly much laughee, laughee."

I believe every member of our circle feels indebted to the Chautauqua system. We have spent profitable hours in reading and studying for the meetings, and we look forward to our Friday mornings with unfailing interest and pleasure.

ANNE E. BRANCH.

GLADSTONE AND PARK PLACE, OREGON.

Abernethy Chautauqua Circle of Park Place-Gladstone, was organized with about twenty members in October, 1897. Since then there has been a marked increase each year until at the present time there are thirty-seven enrolled, ten of whom are members of the "Twentieth Century Class," and expect to complete the required work in time to receive their diplomas during the assembly at Gladstone Park next July.

Our circle is composed of men and women, old and young, all busy workers—teachers, students, clerks, lawyers, business men, and housekeepers, to whom the Chautauqua hours are seasons of delightful mental recreation and social intercourse.

The meetings are held at the homes of the members, alternately, every Monday evening from 7:30 to 9:30. The attendance is always good, although muddy paths and lanterns take the place of sidewalks and street lights. Two leaders choose sides at the beginning of the year, and a contest for credits ensues, the losing side entertaining the winners at the close of each half year's reading. Credits are given for attendance, response at roll-call, required reading, and special duty. Three or four papers are assigned to different members at the beginning of each book, the subjects being on lines brought out by the lessons. At roll-call the members respond with quotations, Greek words in our language, answers to review questions, important current events, etc. A committee provides music each meeting. Informal discussion on some interesting subject is often indulged in. About one hour is devoted to a general discussion of the lesson, led by the president, who brings out the principal thoughts by leading questions on each topic.

The president assigns the program for each meeting, and the members cheerfully perform all duties required of them.

(MRS.) EMMA GALLOWAY, President.

ESCONDIDO, CALIFORNIA.

We have twenty-seven members, and as a large number of them are busy housewives, it requires a great effort always to have a full attendance, especially as a number of the members live in the country. We all enjoy the work this year, the magazine is better than ever, and the articles on the "Rivalry of Nations" very valuable. The Greek history we are looking forward to, and expect to enjoy it. We took a two weeks' vacation at the holidays, and have had one large and interesting meeting since then.

ESTHER M. BROWN, President.

GREELEY, COLORADO.

Our circle is doing very creditable work. We meet regularly the third Friday evening in each month. At our last meeting as our opening exercise, I read Bishop Vincent's January greeting and we had a genuine vesper service. We review the reading, one member, Mrs. Craig, having charge of the Reading Journey. She takes us over the ground in such a charming way that we feel we have taken the journey. We have tried many plans for making the most of our meetings, and are convinced that for people who want to fix in their minds what has been read, we have found, for us at least, the best methods. One is appointed to summarize a chapter, and then we have a fine discussion with any additions to what has already been given, that may be thought of by others. Our two hours are all too short.

(MRS.) M. ELLA VINCENT.

SHELBYVILLE, ILLINOIS.

Three years ago our circle was organized with a membership of seven, which increased to thirteen last

year, and this year numbers twenty—the limit of membership fixed by the society. Although ranging in age from a young woman just out of college to a grandmother of sixty, we are remarkably congenial, and work together most happily. Every member does the reading carefully, and assigned special work is invariably well done.

The attendance at our weekly meetings is excellent, fifteen to seventeen usually, out of a possible twenty. I do not know that there is anything new in the way in which our circle is conducted. We follow many of the ideas in the "Suggestive Programs," but devote much of the hour to the quiz and discussion of the lesson and the effort to bring out the really important facts. We avoid long papers as the plague, and ask that whenever possible the character-sketches, book reviews, etc., be given as offhand talks,—which has proved to be a most beneficial practise. I enclose a program which we gave at the January meeting of the woman's club.

I am very happy to be able to report to you a circle in such a satisfactory and flourishing condition.

GEORGIE T. HOPKINS, President.

The program given before the woman's club, of which the circle is a department, is reported in the local press as follows:

The topic chosen for the program was the work done by the circle during the last three months, viz.: "The French Revolution." Roll-call was answered by one-minute talks on characters active in that great struggle for liberty. Mrs. J. D. Miller read a paper on "The Condition of France Previous to the Revolution"; Mrs. Dearing on "The Influence of French Literature on the Revolution"; Mrs. Wm. Craig on "Parisian Mobs," and Miss Winfred Douthit gave a compilation from Carlyle on the "Diamond Necklace." These papers, as well as the minute talks, showed much thought and research, and were received with an interest very complimentary to both speakers and audience.

BUTLER, INDIANA.

The members of the Philomathean Circle of Butler, Indiana, are enjoying their work especially this year. All are enthusiastic, and devote as much time as possible to study, knowing how beneficial the lessons are; and although each one leads a busy life, loyalty to "C. L. S. C." is never wavering, and the meetings are well attended.

The programs are varied as much as possible. Friendly discussions and, occasionally, a pleasant entertainment are enjoyed after the hour of study.

The club is fortunate in having among its members an English lady who came to America recently. She has added to our ideas those from abroad, and because of her personal knowledge of foreign countries makes clear many things that are not understood.

Because of being especially congenial, the members work in unison and do all in their power to be true Chautauquans.

A MEMBER.

HANOVER, INDIANA.

Our circle consists of sixteen ladies who have many duties outside of this literary work, and consequently little time to spare. As a result, we meet but once in two weeks, and undertake very little of the work as it is mapped out in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. The executive committee, consisting of the three officers, makes out the program for the meetings, assigning the work to each member in turn. The president presides, or during her absence the recording secretary, and the program follows this general plan: Roll-call, answered by quotations from the poets on some particular theme,

incidents from "The French Revolution," a short sketch of different Greek deities, etc. Two papers bearing directly on the lesson, the material of which is to be found in books and articles outside of the circle literature. Under this head also come map talks. The last of our literary program is lighter and more suitable to the close of the meeting, and here are introduced readings from "The Song of Roland," "Innocents Abroad," or another bit of literature that may bear on some topic in the required reading. As a few of our number have had the pleasure of a trip abroad, personal experiences in the cities or countries under consideration are always pleasant and entertaining, especially so when illustrated with photographs or pictures of any sort.

Only one other feature of our work remains to be spoken of, and that is the parlor lecture, which is not a small part of the enjoyment to be found in our circle. These are kindly given by the professors of Hanover College, and we have from two to three during the year. During the months of January and February the circle and many outside friends will have the pleasure of hearing Professor McComb on "The French Revolution," and Professor Garrett on "The Greek Tragedies."

HELEN SIDWELL OLDFATHER, Secretary.

COSHOCOTON, OHIO.

The program of the Home Study Circle which accompanied the following report, outlines the plan of work for the year. Each weekly bulletin of Grace M. E. Church with which the circle is connected, contains a suggestive quotation from some great writer as an incentive to higher aims and as a reminder that the Home Study Circle is ready to help. This circle is under the direction of members of the Chautauqua circle, and each weekly program for the current year takes up one poet, his character and his work, and one famous woman. This is supplemented by practical talks and a critic's report. The work of the Coshocton C. L. S. C. in this direction shows how the C. L. S. C. may help to train leaders for the much-needed service of guiding those who long for better things but do not know how to attain them.

The Coshocton C. L. S. C. for the century's closing decade has been an active organization. Of its seven charter members three are still enthusiastic Chautauquans. One of these has each year received one or more seals. As the years come and go, may Chautauqua seals never be less than her demands.

Fifty persons have responded to our cordial invitation to join our circle. At present but sixteen are enrolled. Three "ha' slipped awa'"; some the great west has claimed; seven have gone into what seems to them the more convenient afternoon clubs; and ten have fallen by the way.

Such is the harmony of the circle that it is known as the "mutual admiration society." But with thoughts of the closing century we have awakened to the fact that internal harmony and self-advancement are not enough. We have interested a lone member among the hills and are meeting the expenses of his course of reading. We have reached out for the busy wage-earner, the homeless stranger in our bustling manufacturing center. And today we speak with gratitude of the "Home Study Circle," the child of the Coshocton

C. L. S. C., born November 30, 1899, and growing in favor. We submit its program. Every Sabbath through the church bulletins it sends broadcast a thought drawn from some phase of its work. This circle's influence is wide-reaching, and it is destined to be a power. Stress is laid upon daily living. The key-note of the organization is found in its motto, "We aim to keep our Heavenly Father in our midst," and in its colors: White, purity of thought and expression; Pink, brightness of face and voice.

MRS. GAULT,
MRS. POWELSON,
MISS KATE MCCLURE,
Committee.

CAZENOVIA, NEW YORK.

The club known as "Miss Dows' Art Class" which has met for many years in Cazenovia has had a very wide influence. As the following account from the leader herself shows, the work started with a Chautauqua circle. The club has had exceptional advantages in many ways, for books and pictures have been freely placed at their service by their indefatigable leader. During the past year, the members presented Miss Dows with a silver loving-cup in token of their appreciation. It is pleasant to feel that the club has so thoroughly represented the altruistic spirit of Chautauqua, and has let its light shine in the community to good purpose.

It is difficult to answer according to questions, as the "Art Class" is entirely led by me, always meets at my house, and has no officers or formal organization. I give my entire time to the work, from October to April or May, when I am at home. The meetings are not formal, taking place every Monday afternoon from 2:30 to 4:30. We took the name of the "Art Class" more especially during the three years' course on the history of art. I have twenty seals on my diploma, for we took the regular four years' course and were "The Argonauts" (Class of '89). We have taken the History of Art, the Trip to England, the Study of the Iliad and Odyssey especially prepared for us, and we now intend to begin the History of Russia. I am most enthusiastic over the new Russian course—I feel I have interesting work and reading for a year or so at least—and am ordering a great many books for it. I have bought almost a library of books for the several courses. The invaluable pleasure and profit I have received from the courses of reading done under the auspices of the C. L. S. C. are to me most gratifying. It affords added pleasure to feel that I have been able to interest so many others, especially as we have done marked work, aside from our studies, for the benefit of the community. Our class of forty members has given benefits for our free library amounting to nearly one hundred and fifty dollars, and in many ways brought to the notice of others the benefit and knowledge of well-prepared courses of study.

AMANDA DOWS.

FLATBUSH, LONG ISLAND, NEW YORK.

The Winthrop Circle is composed almost entirely of bright young people, who, under the direction of a wise and ingenious leader, are pursuing their studies with all the ardor of youth. The following report gives a

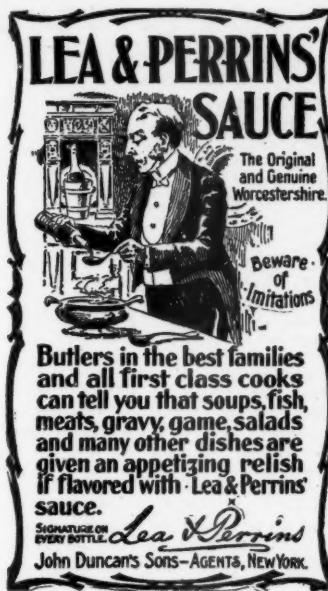
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typical meeting. The reference to art studies brings out an interesting method of using the Perry pictures or other cheap reproductions of great masterpieces. When one has looked up the story of a great picture and has written a description of it one develops a personal interest not only in the picture but in any facts of history or literature which may be associated with it. The circle uses the Chautauqua games and other devices for adding variety to a program which has for its basis good hard study.

The tenth weekly meeting of the Winthrop Circle, of Flatbush, opened with our favorite vesper hymn and responses, followed by one of the Epworth League hymns. At roll-call we mustered a company of characters from the French Revolution, a description being given of each.

Note was then made as to who had kept up with the required reading, and then we turned our thoughts to "The French Revolution." We had our usual written examination, in this case on the last chapter, and a short résumé of the principal events from start to finish of Shailer Mathews's well-written book. The president complimented the circle upon our study and the careful reading, which had enabled us to reach such high percentages up to this portion of our season's work. We said good-bye to "The French Revolution," being well convinced that we had a fairer and clearer view of the French Revolution both with regard to its terrors and to its succeeding benefits.

The next number on the program, a paper, "Reminiscences of the Hôtel de Ville," showed careful preparation and was received with great favor. This was followed by a charming recitation on the rivalry of different national opinions on the Statue of Liberty, and this in turn was succeeded by a well-written essay on "Notre Dame." Another short but very interesting paper on "The Louvre," and then the other members read their descriptions of art pictures drawn on the preceding Wednesday.

Two curios brought by one of the members excited great interest. One was a shoe-buckle which had been worn in France during the time of the French Revolution, the other a box of straw in the form of a hook made by a prisoner in a French prison at the same period.

We decided to postpone our next weekly meeting until December 26, when we meet with a roll-call of characters from a book on Greek literature.

G. EDWIN DE LORRAINE, Secretary.

SEA CLIFF, LONG ISLAND.

The Bryant Circle of Sea Cliff, Long Island, now in its second year, was organized by the literary department of the Epworth League, but the membership is not confined to Methodists.

Sea Cliff is a summer resort, only a few miles from the home of William Cullen Bryant. During the winter months the circle is an important feature in the intellectual and social life of the community. Among its members are a number of persons of wide experience and recognized ability in various fields of usefulness. The membership at present numbers thirty-five, seven of whom are postgraduates. Not as many of the members as could be desired are enrolled at the Cleveland Office, but all are interested in the work and find the meetings a source of profit.

The circle had a debate in December, with three debaters on each side and five judges. Subject:

"Resolved, That a monarchy is better than a republic for people not trained in self-government."

At one meeting the program was arranged according to the plan carried out in "The House Boat on the Styx," the members personating characters prominent in French history about the time of the Revolution.

At the first meeting of the new year the following program was rendered:

Roll-call: New Year's quotations.
History of America during the last century.
European history during the last century.
Changes in Asia during the last century.
Changes in Africa during the last century.
Advance of science during the last century.
Important inventions during the last century.
Development of industries during the last century.
Some great writers of the last century.
Original poem.
Question box.

The following is the program for January 21:

Roll-call: Quotations about Egypt.
Talk (with map) on Greek lands.
Legends of Greece.
Homer and an Introduction to Greek Literature.
The Rosetta Stone.
Pyramids and sphinx.
Discussion: The Eastern Question.
Question box.

LOTTIE E. EDWARDS, Secretary.

RANDOLPH, VERMONT.

In number the membership of the circle is the same as in previous years. There were nine present at our last meeting. The circle is composed of graduates and those not finding it possible at present to take up the work in as thorough a manner as they would be required to do if intending to graduate. They are still keeping in line, and are taking the Chautauqua lessons as given out with much pleasure and interest. We have with us teachers in the graded school, newspaper reporter, one professional singer, and several housewives, none that have time unlimited to devote to this or any specialty however attractive. We have first the roll-call, which usually is made of the finest bit of thought condensed, and it is often a "rarebit." We then listen to the secretary's report which is always interesting. We are sometimes surprised that we have done so well. Then comes the reading of the papers. They are written with care, and are well received. Then there are usually readings, among them one humorous selection. This with the questions and assignments of lesson occupies the evening, and I will say here that not one reading, or two, will prepare one to answer the questions on "The Rivalry of Nations," that a persistent study is necessary to fix the facts stated in the mind; that there are a large number of subjects to select from for readings or papers; that the magazine is filled with good things.

MRS. S. S. BASS.

SEYMOUR, CONNECTICUT.

We have a committee known as our program committee, and at each meeting this committee announces the program for the next one. We meet twice a month. Our program usually is a varied one, consisting of short quizzes by the president, or a brief review of the work. Aside from this we have had several debates and at each meeting very interesting papers on some phase of the work either in THE CHAUTAUQUAN or from one of the books. We usually have about fifteen minutes' recess which is spent in experimenting with electrical machines, conundrum guessing, story-

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telling, or serving light refreshments. We are fortunate in having in our membership a woman of fine education and rare talent who has given us excellent drills in parliamentary rules, and three papers, one of them on French Statesmen being especially able.

Our critic's report is always full of interest, and is one of the attractions of our meetings. We are very fond of the work and our circle is, I think, making an unusually thorough study of the course.

EDGAR C. TULLAR, President.

EDGEWOOD, PROVIDENCE, RHODE ISLAND.

The Roger Williams Circle of Edgewood, Rhode Island, meets every Friday afternoon in the new public library, and spends two and one-half hours in reading and study. It is progressing very rapidly, as is shown by its increasing numbers, also by the average good attendance. While doing the required reading of the club we have made a specialty of the French Revolution, and as our president, Mrs. Wm. Burge, is a French scholar she has greatly assisted us in many ways and has made the study much more interesting and instructive than it would otherwise have been. Her kindly offer to teach a French class the ladies of the circle very gladly accepted. The class meets every Tuesday evening and shows great proficiency in the language, considering the number of lessons taken. Mrs. E. C. Pearce, our treasurer, has spent much valuable time in looking up extracts from different authors to be read at the circle meetings. These have been greatly appreciated. We think, as a circle, that we have a very clear knowledge of the French Revolution, and hope the Greek course which we commence next week will be equally interesting and enjoyable.

MRS. CHAS. L. MARSTON.

BUFFALO, NEW YORK.

The Riverside Chautauqua Circle was organized in 1898. The membership is made up of people of different occupations, but the majority are school teachers. At present it has twenty-seven members, consisting of twenty women and seven men. There is an average attendance of twenty-three.

At the beginning of the term, aside from the officers were appointed two leaders, who chose sides. Credit marks are given at each meeting, one for each of the following: Being present, on time, having roll-call, special duty, and being read up. Members who are unable to be present but send a report, receive credits accordingly. At the end of the term the losing side is to furnish a banquet.

The two leaders name two other monthly leaders, and these monthly leaders assign the lessons and appoint those who are to review the work. The meetings are opened with a Chautauqua song and with prayer. The regular routine of work and business is gone through, after which papers or poems are read by different members.

Quite frequently the circle has been favored with interesting talks by different men who have traveled extensively abroad and are able to throw much light on the reading in the several books. The circle occasionally has social gatherings, which are found to be very helpful.

SCHEECTADY, NEW YORK.

In our circle we invite all members of our county, so far as we can secure names. All these meet with us each week, or if they are not able to come, a vote is taken for the best paper read at that particular meeting, and a copy is ordered sent to those members, they returning the compliment. We are getting much outside strength and help in this way.

We are following the plan of last year of having three papers on the reading of the month in place of the "quiz." We find it works better followed by some speaker. We have held one vesper service. We have succeeded in persuading the Y. W. C. A. and Y. M. C. A. and the public library to subscribe for THE CHAUTAUQUAN this year. The librarian placed on the bulletin a list of books bearing on the work of the year, and a list of substitute books for seal work. You can well guess how much this helped "us poor Chautauquans."

IDA M. MYRICK, Secretary.

BROOKLYN, NEW YORK.

The Brooklyn alumni sends a report of its program for February 5, which evidently has to do with St. Valentine. The mysteries of Eleusis were not more carefully withheld from the public than are these of the alumni:

PROGRAM.

Part First.

Opening Exercises.

Business.

Mystery.

?

More Mystery.

Mister Y.

INTERMISSION.

Part Second.

Mysterious Time.

Another Mystery.

?

Mysterious Saint.

One More Mystery.

Mysterious Hearts.

Miss Tery.

Mysterious Finale.

BAYONNE, NEW JERSEY.

The Whittier C. L. S. C. has representatives of four classes among its members. They keep as nearly to the required readings as possible, and are beginning the study of Greek history and literature with interest. The circle numbers fourteen men and women, all of whom would gladly devote more time to the work than they can command. The president, who is of the Class of 1890, is full of enthusiasm.

L. C. GOULD, Secretary.

SHEFFIELD, PA., THE H. M. CONAWAY CIRCLE.

Our original circle of sixteen, organized in 1899, following the true spirit of last year's study has expanded. We now number forty-three, eighteen of whom are men, the majority of them professional and business men. Described by classes we consist of thirty-one 1904's, nine 1903's, two '99's, and one '82.

To our president, Byron B. Horton, graduate of State College, Pennsylvania, who has purchased many valuable books of reference for the benefit of the circle, the deep interest characterizing the year's study is largely due; but to Rev. Dr. Conaway, formerly professor of Latin and European history at Ohio University, we owe the existence of the circle itself. "The Rivalry of Nations" under his leadership has held the closest interest from the first. We are promised in the near future a convention of delegates from the colonies of Great Britain. Each delegate is expected to relate briefly the history of his own land in its relation to England, and if so inclined, present his list of grievances.

Professor Mumford has closed a successful study of "The French Revolution." The Critical Studies have been treated exhaustively by one of our teachers in a

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fine series of papers. The Inner Life studies have been written up in an interesting manner by different members. Schliemann's discoveries, as related in a number of papers, have aroused great interest. Still another member is treating us to a series of talks on Greek art.

One evening only have we abandoned solid, hard work for "Literary Amusement." In place of the ordinary study of mythology, we spent "An Evening Among the Gods." To the individual members of the circle the character of a god or goddess was assigned, each describing the attributes of that special deity as his or her own. The Olympian deities and many others of less importance were present. The Muse family was represented by Terpsichore, who told us about her eight sisters; Echo spoke for the vast family of nymphs; even the Sirens and the Furies graced the assembly. The hearty enthusiasm of the large number taking part made the evening both humorous and profitable.

MRS. ARLOUINE JONES.

WARREN, PENNSYLVANIA.

The C. L. S. C. of Warren, Pennsylvania, was organized in October, 1894, at the suggestion of Mrs. G. W. Scofield. The circle was composed of charter and elected members to the number of twenty-five who were to conduct its exercises along the general line of Chautauqua work, varying them as circumstances might seem to require. During the first four years the circle pursued the reading of the regular prescribed C. L. S. C. courses; eight members completed the reading and graduated in 1898. The first postgraduate course was in English literature, this was followed by French history completed in 1900, and in 1901 course in anthropology is being studied. These are all special C. L. S. C. courses. The general plan pursued during the regular four years' work was to follow very nearly the system laid down in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for the same period. Since that time the practise has been to adopt through a committee an annual program giving the work for each regular meeting during the coming year. These programs have been arranged with a view to encourage review study of important events, and to emphasize notable persons and periods connected with the study.

The zeal of our organizer, Mrs. Scofield, in Chautauqua work has been very great, and not only prompted her to do all the reading of the various courses pursued but also to entertain the circle at her home during the entire seven years of its existence.

HOLICONG, PENNSYLVANIA.

There has been such a varied and interesting program of work done by the Buckingham C. L. S. C. that it will be impossible to select therefrom what you may most desire to hear.

We held regular meetings every two weeks, which were opened by a short, silent prayer, followed by a scriptural or other religious reading. The roll of members was called, and each one responded to her name by giving a quotation, either from an author particularly chosen for the day or selected from the whole range of literature at our command.

After this there was a second calling of the roll, giving each one a chance to state whether she had performed the required amount of work, and woe to the luckless ones who had been too busy with other duties or too idle, and could not answer "prepared," for before them arose the vision of the entertainment which the delinquents would be required to give to their more fortunate sisters during the coming summer holidays.

After this routine business was finished, the regular work was taken up and questions on our required reading or on special work answered, calling forth much comment as the various answers brought out interesting facts from the book under discussion or from other sources. These exercises were varied by music, recitations, or entertaining readings. Our last exercise consisted of giving items of interest about what is happening in the world around us.

This is the general outline of our meetings, but it is impossible for me to give you an idea of the friendly repartee and the charming *bon mots* which, mingled with our more serious work, have made our circle such a delightful gathering and such a bond of fellowship in the neighborhood.

MISS ELIZABETH M. FELL.

WASHINGTON, D. C.

Wesley Memorial Circle, although named for the church in which it originated, is not restricted to that church for its membership, which might almost be described as non-sectarian. It has in its total of thirteen active members a band of energetic, painstaking workers, some of whom are old Chautauqua graduates who are helping weaker members up the rugged road to victory which they have already attained. In this circle are members of the Classes of 1901, 1902, 1903, and 1904. A very good attendance is maintained, the meeting night being Tuesday of each week, one and one-half hours being consumed in actual work. The method pursued is the appointment of the lesson by the president and of a quiz-master to prepare questions for the following meeting, changing the persons each week, and thus keeping all up to a feeling of personal interest in the work. Our president is Miss Esther Woodward, and the secretary, Mr. Fred. McKay, both of the Class of 1902.

Yours very sincerely,

A. F. TENNILLE, Class of 1904.

FAIRBURY, ILLINOIS.

Fairbury, Illinois, cheerily reports the C. L. S. C. in the most prosperous and progressive condition. Sixteen is the membership limit, and is fully occupied by active members. The ladies were much interested in the review of "The French Revolution," and appreciate the standard value of the "World Politics of Today." But the real enthusiasm in the work belongs justly to the study of the history of Greece and the ancient myths and legends of Greek literature.

Everything in the circle is satisfactory, and some of the members are eagerly anticipating the next year's course. They are fortunate in having a very efficient president who is in hearty sympathy with the work, and as leader brings out all that is of interest, inspiring every one with her own promptness and careful preparation. Genuine cooperation and special work for each member has proved to be the secret of their success.

MANCHESTER, IOWA.

I wish to report through *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* that Manchester Franklin C. L. S. C. is doing finely under the leadership of Mrs. F. F. Cory. We have ten new members for 1904, the largest number enrolled for one class in several years. Another class has been formed reporting six new members, so you see that the interest in this great work is still advancing here. With graduates and undergraduates, Franklin Circle enrolls about thirty.

MRS. C. J. FRIEND, Secretary.

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BOOKS RECEIVED.

THE MACMILLAN CO., NEW YORK.

The Men Who Made the Nation. An Outline of United States History from 1760 to 1865. By Edwin Erle Sparks, Ph. D. Illustrated. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. \$2.00.

The Story of Assisi. By Lina Duff Gordon. Illustrated by Nelly Ericksen and M. Helen James. $4\frac{1}{2} \times 7$. \$1.50.

The Elements of Astronomy. By Sir Robert Ball, LL. D., F. R. S. $4\frac{1}{2} \times 7$. .80.

Nicomedes Tragedie par Pierre Corneille. 1651. Edited and Annotated by James A. Harrison. $4\frac{1}{2} \times 7$. .60.

Sesame and Lilies and The King of the Golden River. By John Ruskin. Edited with Notes and Introduction by Herbert Bates. $4\frac{1}{2} \times 5\frac{1}{2}$. .25.

A Treasury of Irish Poetry. In the English Tongue. Edited by Stopford A. Brooke and T. W. Rolleston. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$.

American History Told by Contemporaries. Volume III. National Expansion. 1783-1845. Edited by Albert Bushnell Hart. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$. \$2.00.

The Romance of the Earth. By A. W. Bickerton. $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. .80.

The Child Life Primer. By Etta Austin Blaisdell and Mary Francis Blaisdell. $6 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. .25.

GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE, WASHINGTON.

Report of the Census of Cuba, 1899, Lt.-Col. J. P. Sanger, Inspector-General, Director. Henry Gannett, Walter F. Willcox, Statistical Experts. $6 \times 9\frac{1}{2}$. Bulletin of the Department of Labor. No. 31—November, 1900.

Report of the Librarian of Congress for the Fiscal Year ending June 30, 1900. $6 \times 9\frac{1}{2}$.

List of Books (with references to periodicals) Relating to the Theory of Colonization, Government of Dependencies, Protectorates, and Related Topics. By A. P. C. Griffin, Chief, Division of Bibliography. Second Edition, with Additions. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 9\frac{1}{2}$.

Seventeenth Annual Report of the Bureau of American Ethnology to the Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution. 1895-96. By J. W. Powell, Director. Part 2. $8 \times 11\frac{1}{2}$.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & CO., BOSTON.

Giles Corey of the Salem Farms. (Riverside Literature Series.) By Henry W. Longfellow. With introductory note and stage directions. $4\frac{1}{2} \times 7$. .15. Murillo. (The Riverside Art Series.) A collection of fifteen pictures and a portrait of the painter, with introduction and interpretation. By Estelle M. Hurl. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8\frac{1}{2}$. .40.

A Century of American Diplomacy. Being a Brief Review of the Foreign Relations of the United States. 1776-1876. By John W. Foster. 6×9 .

D. APPLETON & CO., NEW YORK.

David Harum. A Story of American Life. By Edward Noyes Westcott. Illustrated by B. West Clinedinist, with a few text drawings by C. D. Farrand. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. \$2.00.

The International Geography. By Seventy Authors. With 448 Illustrations. Edited by Hugh Robert Mill, D. Sc. $6 \times 8\frac{1}{2}$.

A History of Chinese Literature. By Herbert A. Giles, M. A., LL. D. (Aberd.) $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. \$1.50.

D. C. HEATH & CO., BOSTON.

Balzac's Cinq Scènes de la Comédie Humaine. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) Selected and Edited with introduction and notes by Benjamin W. Wells, Ph. D. $4\frac{1}{2} \times 6\frac{1}{2}$. .40.

Schiller's Das Lied von der Glocke. (Heath's Modern

Language Series.) With Introduction, Notes and Vocabulary by W. A. Chamberlin. $4\frac{1}{2} \times 6\frac{1}{2}$. .20.

THE METHODIST MAGAZINE PUBLISHING CO., ST. LOUIS.

The Illustrated History of Methodism. The Story of the Origin and Progress of the Methodist Church, from its Foundation by John Wesley to the Present Day. Written in popular style and illustrated by more than one thousand portraits and views of persons and places. By Rev. James W. Lee, D. D., Rev. Naphthali Lucecock, D. D., and James Main Dixon, M. A. $7\frac{1}{2} \times 10\frac{1}{2}$.

THE ABBEY PRESS, NEW YORK.

Through Stress and Storm. By Gregory Brooke. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$. \$1.00.

Sweetbrier. By L. M. Elshemus. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$. \$1.00.

A Quaker Scout. By N. P. Runyan. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 9$. \$1.25.

City Boys in the Country: or, Weston and Howard at Bedford. By Clinton Osgood Burling. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$. \$1.00.

How to Enjoy Matrimony: or, The Monogamic Marriage Law Amended by Trial Expiration Clause. By Rose Marie. $4 \times 6\frac{1}{2}$. .25.

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Principles of Religious Education. A course of lectures delivered under the auspices of the Sunday-school Commission of the Diocese of New York. With an Introduction by The Right Reverend Henry C. Potter, D. D., LL. D., Bishop of New York. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$.

A Reader in Physical Geography for Beginners. By Richard Elwood Dodge. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$.

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The Richard Mansfield Acting Version of King Henry V. A History in Five Acts. By Wm. Shakespeare. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 9$. .50.

THE ORVILLE BREWER PUBLISHING CO., CHICAGO.

Enoch Arden. By Alfred Tennyson. (Students' Series of Four Penny Classics.) Pamphlet.

Brewers' Collection of National Songs and Hymns. (Students' Series of Four Penny Classics.) Pamphlet.

THE ROSARY PRESS, SOMERSET, OHIO.

Life of our Lord and Savior Jesus Christ. By Rev. J. Puisoux, Honorary Canon and Former Student of the Carmelite School. Translated from the French by Roderick A. McEachen, A. B. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$.

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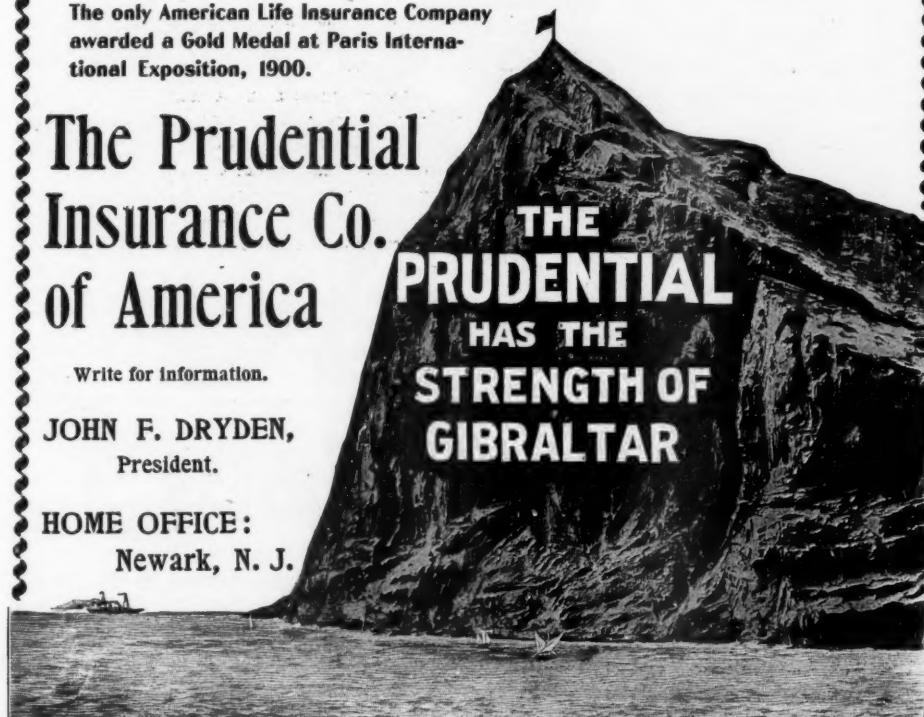
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A Short History of French Literature. By L. E. Kastner, B. A. (Camb.) and H. G. Atkins, M. A. (Lond.), B. A. (Camb.) $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$.

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THE INTERNATIONAL MONTHLY, BURLINGTON, VT.

The Expansion of Russia. Problems of the East and Problems of the Far East. By Alfred Rambaud. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS, NEW YORK.

The Teachers' Commentary on the Gospel According to St. Matthew. By F. N. Peloubet, D. D. $6 \times 8\frac{1}{2}$. \$1.25.

DODD, MEAD & CO., NEW YORK.

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Donahey's Cartoons. Drawn by J. H. Donahey, cartoonist of Cleveland Plain Dealer. 1900. $14 \times 10\frac{1}{2}$.

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RAND, MCNALLY & CO., CHICAGO AND NEW YORK.

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THE AMERICAN RAILWAY GUIDE CO., CHICAGO.

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CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS, NEW YORK.

A Literary History of America. By Barrett Wendell. 6×9 . \$3.00.

THE SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION, WASHINGTON.

Norway. Official Publication for the Paris Exposition, 1900. $7\frac{1}{2} \times 10\frac{1}{2}$.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY, ITHACA, NEW YORK.

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Index to Advertisements

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN, MARCH, 1901.

BOOKS, PERIODICALS, ETC.

Pages I-XII.

BREAKFAST FOODS.

Pages 671, 675, 686.

BOATS, OUTING SUPPLIES, ETC.

Page 682.

BICYCLES.

Pages 682, 683, 684, 685, 686, 687, 688, 689, 691.

CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOLS.

Pages I, V.

COCOA.

Page 665.

DRESS GOODS, WEARING APPAREL, ETC.

Pages 676, 677, 678, 679.

EXTRACTS.

Page 675.

EDUCATIONAL.

Pages I-V.

FOOD PRODUCTS.

Pages 661, 665, 671, 675.

INSURANCE.

Pages 667, 669.

JEWELRY.

Page 673.

LITERARY NOTES.

Page VIII.

MEDICINAL.

Pages 661, 678, 682.

RAILROADS, EXCURSIONS.

Pages 683, 684, 689, 690.

SEEDS, PLANTS, ETC.

Page 678.

SOAPs, WASHING POWDERS, ETC.

Pages 663, 692.

TABLE DELICACIES.

Page 661.

TYPEWRITERS AND SUPPLIES.

Pages 678, 680, 681.

TOURS, EXCURSIONS, ETC.

Pages 683, 684, 689, 690.

WATCHES.

Page 673.

WIT AND HUMOR.

Pages 674, 681, 686.

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Cheap vanilla is poisonous. Beware of
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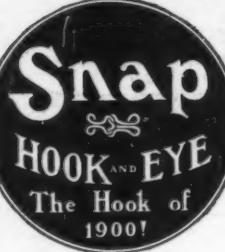
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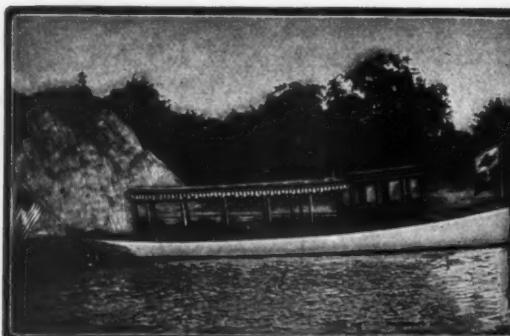
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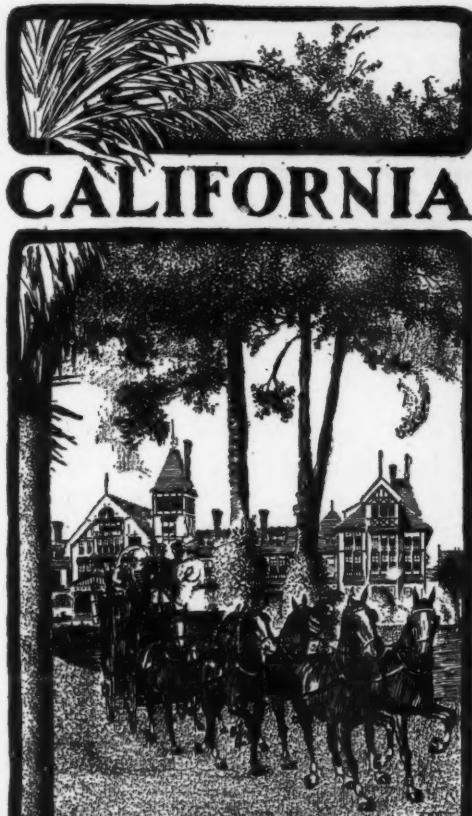
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(Center Drive).

A strongly individualized bicycle of the highest type of bevel-gear construction. The central location of the main gear minimizes all tendency of the frame to twist under riding strains and imparts a peculiarly well-balanced and distinctive appearance to the machine. New Models \$75.

The new SPALDING CHAIN MODELS retain every distinctive Spalding feature but embody many changes in keeping with the advance of cycle manufacture during the last year. Price \$50.

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1901 Models, \$10 to \$18
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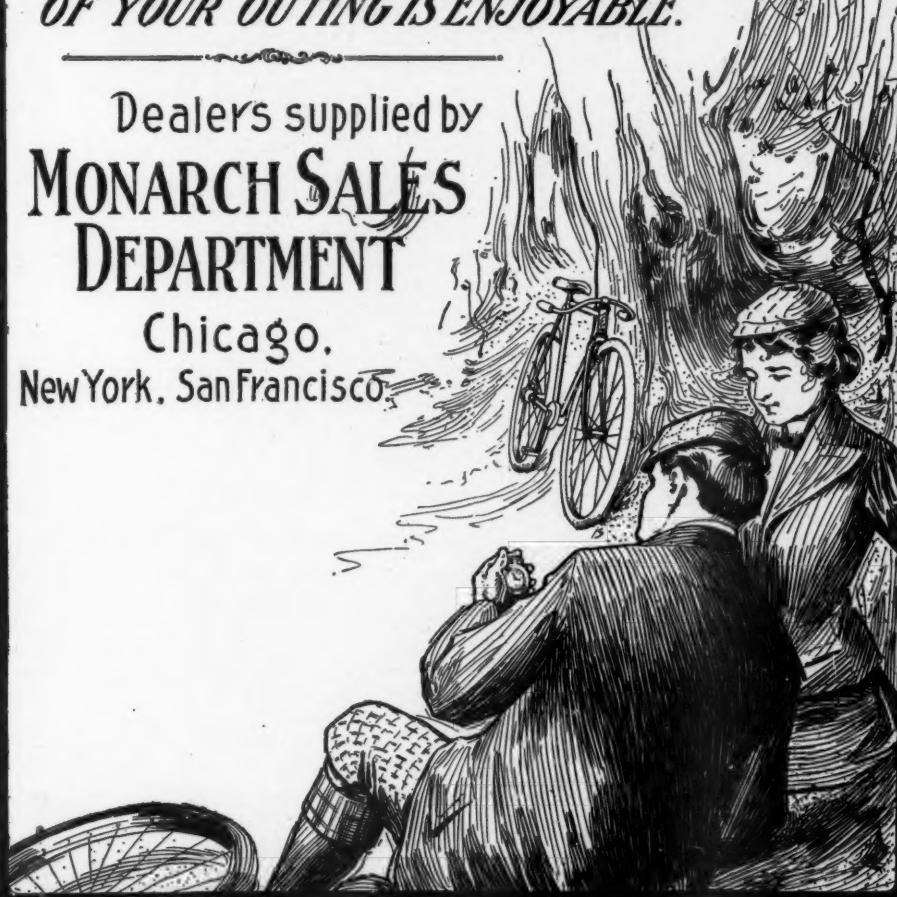


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When shades of evening close around
Then shines the mellow light
Upon some group that may be found
On almost any night,
All eyes are on the pages bent
Of some late magazine,
And yet the group is not intent
On fashion notes, I ween,
But on those verses, which assure
The buyer, Ivory Soap is pure.

And though they sing at length its praise
In smooth and flowing verse;
Extol its worth in many ways,
In maxims brief and terse,
Nor verse nor maxim can portray
The virtues of this soap,
The only way by which one may
Afford it proper scope,
Is this: give it a thorough test,
And find that Ivory Soap is best.

